

बाल शैक्षणी

भाग 3

संयुक्ता लूदरा
सत्येन्द्र वर्मा



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सर्वाधिकार सुरक्षित

- ☐ प्रकाशक की पूर्व अनुमति के बिना इस प्रकाशन के किसी भाग को छापना तथा इलेक्ट्रॉनिकी, मशीनी, फोटोप्रतिलिपि, रिकॉर्डिंग अथवा किसी अन्य विधि से पुनः प्रयोग पद्धति द्वारा चरका संग्रहण अथवा प्रसारण वर्जित है।
- ☐ इस पुस्तक कि किसी इस शर्त के साथ की गई है कि प्रकाशक की पूर्व अनुमति के बिना यह पुस्तक अपने मूल आवरण अथवा पिल्ड के अलावा किसी अन्य प्रकार से व्यवहार द्वारा उदासी पर, पुनर्विक्रय या किराए पर न दी जाएगी, न बेची जाएगी।
- ☐ इस प्रकाशन का सही मूल्य इस पृष्ठ पर मुद्रित है। रपड़ की मुहर अथवा चिपकाई गई पर्ची (स्टिकर) या किसी अन्य विधि द्वारा अंकित कोई भी संशोधित मूल्य गलत है तथा मान्य नहीं होगा।

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प्रकाशन विभाग में सचिव, राष्ट्रीय शैक्षिक अनुसंधान और प्रशिक्षण परिषद्, श्री अरविन्द मार्ग, नई दिल्ली 110 016 द्वारा प्रकाशित तथा शगुन ऑफसेट 132, मुहम्मदपुर, भीकाजी कामा पलेस, नई दिल्ली 110066 द्वारा मुद्रित।

प्रावकथन

भाषा मनुष्य के वैयक्तिक और सामाजिक जीवन के विकास के लिए सबसे उपयोगी साधन है, इसलिए भाषा सीखना व्यक्ति की मूलभूत आवश्यकता है। यह एक सहज प्रक्रिया है। भाषा की शिक्षा के बिना मनुष्य का सामाजिक और बौद्धिक विकास पूर्ण नहीं होगा। भाषा का प्रवाह व्यक्ति और समाज में निरन्तर चलता रहता है। भाषा शिक्षण का मुख्य उद्देश्य विद्यार्थियों को इस योग्य बना देना है जिससे वे भाषा के प्रवाह में स्वयं तैर सकें।

पाठ्यचर्या, पाठ्यक्रम और पाठ्य सामग्री का निर्माण एक सतत प्रक्रिया है। राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति 1986 के तहत परिषद् ने नवीन पाठ्यपुस्तकों के निर्माण की जो शृंखला प्रारंभ की थी उसमें बाल भारती भाग 3 प्राथमिक कक्षाओं में मातृभाषा हिंदी पढ़ाने के लिए निर्मित पुस्तक की तीसरी कड़ी है। इस पुस्तक का प्रथम संस्करण 1987 में प्रकाशित किया गया था। सन् 2000 में परिषद् द्वारा विद्यालयी शिक्षा के लिए राष्ट्रीय पाठ्यचर्या की रूपरेखा निर्मित की गई और उसके आधार पर पाठ्यक्रमों का निर्माण किया गया। इस पाठ्यचर्या और पाठ्यक्रम का मुख्य उद्देश्य है — बस्ते के बोझ को कम करना, पाठ्य सामग्री को अद्यतन बनाना और मूल्यपरक शिक्षा प्रदान करना। परिषद् ने पाठ्यचर्या और पाठ्यक्रमों को आधार बनाकर विभिन्न विषयों में नई पाठ्यपुस्तकों का निर्माण तथा अन्य पाठ्य सामग्री में संशोधन, परिवर्धन का कार्य आरंभ किया है।

इसी आधार पर बाल भारती भाग 3 में यथा-आवश्यक संशोधन किया गया है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक को संशोधित करते समय ध्यान रखा गया है कि पाठ्यक्रम के बोझ को कम किया जा सके तथा पाठ्य सामग्री को नई पाठ्यचर्या के परिप्रेक्ष्य में अद्यतन बनाया जा सके।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में भाषा-कौशलों के साथ-साथ मनोरंजन पर भी पर्याप्त बल देने का प्रयास किया गया है, ताकि बच्चों में पठन-पाठन के प्रति रुचि उत्पन्न हो सके और अधिगम प्रक्रिया आनंददायी बन सके।

इस पुस्तक के निर्माण का मुख्य उद्देश्य विद्यार्थियों के मानसिक क्षितिज का सहज रूप से सम्यक् विकास करना है। साहित्य की विविध-विधाओं के कुछ सरल रूपों— कहानी, कविता, निबंध, पत्र, संवाद, वर्णन, आत्मकथा, एकांकी, जीवनी आदि के माध्यम से इस पुस्तक में सामग्री को प्रस्तुत किया गया है। यह भी ध्यान रखा गया है कि विद्यार्थियों में पठित सामग्री के आधार पर चिंतन की योग्यता भी विकसित हो सके।

जिन विचारों एवं मानव मूल्यों पर अधिक बल दिया गया है उनमें कुछ इस प्रकार हैं— देशप्रेम, राष्ट्रीय एकता, वैज्ञानिक दृष्टिकोण का विकास, सामाजिक सहयोग, पर्यावरण संरक्षण, पारस्परिक सद्भाव, समूह के प्रति उत्तरदायित्व की भावना, भारतीय संस्कृति एवं इतिहास का ज्ञान, सच्चाई, सफ़ाई, अनुशासन, समय-पालन, खेल भावना, साहस, श्रम का महत्त्व, स्वास्थ्य, सभी धर्मों के प्रति आदर का भाव आदि।

आशा है कि विषय, विधा तथा प्रस्तुतीकरण की दृष्टि से बाल भारती भाग 3 के इस नवीन संशोधित संस्करण का विद्यार्थियों और शिक्षकों द्वारा स्वागत होगा।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक को और अधिक उपयोगी बनाने के लिए विद्यार्थियों, अध्यापकों और भाषाविदों द्वारा भेजे गए सुझावों का हम सदैव स्वागत करेंगे।

नई दिल्ली

फरवरी 2002

जगमोहन सिंह राजपूत

निदेशक

राष्ट्रीय शैक्षिक अनुसंधान और प्रशिक्षण परिषद्

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शिक्षकों के लिए

बाल भारती पुस्तकमाला की यह तीसरी पुस्तक है। दूसरी पुस्तक समाप्त होने तक बच्चे अनेक सरल संयुक्त वणों से निर्मित शब्दों को शुद्ध उच्चारण में पढ़ना सीख जाते हैं। इस पुस्तक में कुछ अन्य संयुक्त वणों का समावेश किया गया है। इनसे बनने वाले अनेक शब्दों को किसी न किसी रूप में अभ्यासों में प्रस्तुत किया गया है। पाठ्यपुस्तक में जीवन के विविध क्षेत्रों से जुड़े बच्चों की रुचि पर आधारित पाठ लिए गए हैं। इन पाठों को कहानी, कविता, संवाद, वर्णन, आत्मकथा, निबंध, एकांकी, पत्र, जीवनी आदि विधाओं में संयोजा गया है।

पाठों के अंत में सुनियोजित ढंग से प्रश्न तथा अभ्यास दिए गए हैं। आशा है इनके द्वारा बच्चों में अर्थग्रहण करने, विस्तृत विवरण जानने, मुख्य विचार जानने, प्रत्यास्मरण करने, निष्कर्ष निकालने तथा घटनाक्रम समझने की योग्यताएँ विकसित की जा सकेंगी। इनके अतिरिक्त इनके कार्य-करण संबंध स्थापित करने, परिचित कहानी या घटना का संक्षेप में वर्णन करने, पठित अंश का शीर्षक बताने, कहानी या एकांकी के पात्रों के संबंध में अपनी प्रतिक्रिया व्यक्त करने, पात्रों का अभिनय करने, चित्र-छांट बनाने आदि की कुशलताएँ विकसित करने में भी सहायता प्राप्त होगी।

कक्षा ३ तक आते-आते बच्चों की शिक्षक समाप्त हो जाती है और वे भाषा सीखने-सिखाने तथा सुनने-बोलने की क्रियाओं में सक्रिय भाग लेने लगते हैं। उनमें शिक्षक, सहपाठियों तथा अन्य व्यक्तियों द्वारा कही गई बातों को धैर्यपूर्वक सुनने की कुशलता भी कुछ सीमा तक विकसित हो जाती है। इस कुशलता का और अधिक विकास अपेक्षित है। इस दृष्टि से कक्षा में विद्यार्थियों के बीच संवाद, समूह में चर्चा, अभिनय, भूमिका-निर्वाह, पूरी कक्षा के साथ विचार-विमर्श आदि क्रियाओं का आयोजन किया जा सकता है। इन क्रियाओं में प्रत्येक बच्चे की भागीदारी सुनिश्चित करें। साथ ही विद्यार्थियों में धैर्यपूर्वक सुनकर समझने तथा स्वाभाविक ढंग से बोलकर अपनी बात कहने की दक्षताओं का विकास किया जा सकता है।

बच्चों के परिवेश में घटित घटनाओं तथा उनकी रुचि के परिचित विषयों पर चर्चा में भाग लेने के लिए निरंतर प्रोत्साहित करना बहुत आवश्यक है। इन विषयों में सामाजिक उत्सव, राष्ट्रीय त्योहार, श्रमदान, सामुदायिक सेवा के कार्य आदि सम्मिलित किए जा सकते हैं।

बच्चे स्थानीय बोलियों के प्रभाव से मुक्त होकर हिंदी भाषा के परिनिष्ठित रूप का प्रयोग करने लगें, इसके लिए शिक्षक को निरंतर सुनियोजित प्रयास करना होगा। अतः ध्यान रखें कि बच्चे अपनी लिखित अभिव्यक्ति में यथासंभव मानक भाषा का ही प्रयोग करें।

बच्चों को पठन-संबंधी योग्यताओं में उत्तरोत्तर उन्नति और उनकी अन्य भाषिक योग्यताओं तथा अभिरुचियों के समुचित विकास के लिए यह आवश्यक हो जाता है कि हम यह न सोचें कि आज हमें इतने पृष्ठ पढ़ा ही देने हैं। बल्कि हम यह मानकर चलें कि हमें तो भाषा-संबंधी अनुभवों को प्राप्त कराने के लिए पृष्ठभूमि तैयार करनी है। यह तभी हो सकता है जब भाषा के पाठ को विस्तृत अर्थ में लिया जाए।

भाषायी योग्यताओं को निरंतर बढ़ावा देने के लिए आवश्यक है कि हम पढ़ाते समय इस बात का ध्यान रखें कि बच्चे समान रूप से सभी भाषायी योग्यताओं में कुशलता प्राप्त करें। किसी पाठ को पढ़ाने से पूर्व उसकी योजना बनाकर किस समय क्या पढ़ाया जाए, यह निश्चित कर लेने पर पाठ द्वारा विकसित—सुनना, बोलना, पढ़ना, लिखना तथा चिंतन संबंधी सभी योग्यताओं पर समान रूप से बल दिया जा सकता है।

शिक्षक शिक्षण-अधिगम प्रक्रिया को संपन्न करने के लिए निम्नलिखित सोपानों को अपना सकते हैं :

1. पृष्ठभूमि का निर्माण अथवा पाठ की तैयारी

किसी पाठ को पढ़ाने से पूर्व उसकी पृष्ठभूमि का निर्माण करना मनोवैज्ञानिक दृष्टि से सर्वथा उचित है। इससे बच्चों के पूर्वज्ञान का पता चल जाता है और उन्हें पाठ को समझने में सहायता मिलती है। इस सोपान के अंतर्गत बच्चों से पाठ की विषय-वस्तु से संबंधित ऐसे प्रश्न पूछे जाएँ जिनके उत्तरों से हमें उस विषय के संबंध में उनके पूर्व अनुभवों का पता चल जाए। साथ-साथ पाठ या कहानी से संबंधित कुछ अन्य बातें जिनका ज्ञान अभी बच्चों को नहीं है परंतु वे पाठ या कहानी के लिए आवश्यक हैं, उन्हें भी बताएँ। उदाहरण के लिए 'कोयल' शीर्षक पाठ कविता के रूप में है। इसे पढ़ाने से पहले निम्नलिखित प्रश्नों द्वारा बच्चों से चर्चा की जा सकती है—

- तुमने कौन-कौन सी चिड़ियाँ देखी हैं ?
- तुमने किस-किस चिड़िया की आवाज़ सुनी है ?
- कोयल की बोली को लोग क्यों पसंद करते हैं ?
- कोयल अकसर किस पेड़ की डाल पर बैठती है ?

इन प्रश्नों से प्राप्त उत्तरों के आधार पर आप बताएँ कि वसंत के सुहाने मौसम में कोयल आम की डाल पर बैठकर 'कू-कू' कर अपनी मीठी आवाज़ सुनाती है। आज जो कविता हम पढ़ेंगे, वह कोयल के बारे में ही है। इसमें कवि ने कल्पना की है कि कोयल की मीठी आवाज़ से ही कच्चे आम रस से भरकर, पके, रसीले आमों में बदल जाते हैं। इस प्रकार बच्चों को मानसिक रूप से तैयार करने के बाद कविता का शिक्षण प्रारंभ करना उचित होगा।

कविता के शिक्षण के संबंध में यह भी ध्यान रखना आवश्यक है कि इसे पढ़ाने का ढंग कहानी, संवाद, वर्णन आदि विधा के पाठों को पढ़ाने से भिन्न है। कविता पढ़ाने का मुख्य उद्देश्य बच्चों को सौंदर्यबोध तथा रसानुभूति कराना है। कविता को पढ़कर वे आनंद प्राप्त करें, यही हमारा मुख्य लक्ष्य है। छोटी कक्षाओं में कविता की प्रत्येक पंक्ति का अर्थ स्पष्ट करना आवश्यक नहीं है। यदि कविता प्रकृति-प्रेम, देश-प्रेम, वातावरण, पशु-पक्षी आदि के विषय में है तो बच्चों को उसे पढ़कर आनंद प्राप्त करने के साथ-साथ देश, प्रकृति तथा पशु-पक्षियों के प्रति अनुराग और दया के भाव का भी बोध हो। इस स्तर पर इस बात पर विशेष बल दें कि बच्चे कविता को याद कर सकें और हाव-भाव तथा स्वर के उतार-चढ़ाव के साथ सुना सकें। इसके लिए आवश्यक है कि पहले शिक्षक उचित हाव-भाव में पूरी कविता को दो-तीन बार सुना दें जिससे बच्चों को कविता के भाव स्पष्ट हो सकें।

गद्य में कहानी, वर्णन आदि विधाओं के पाठ का शिक्षण करने में भी उचित पृष्ठभूमि का निर्माण करना आवश्यक है। उदाहरण के लिए 'कबूतर और मधुमक्खियाँ' पाठ कहानी विधा में है। इसे पढ़ाने से पहले बच्चों से उनके द्वारा देखे गए पक्षियों और छोटे जीवों के बारे में बातचीत की जा सकती है, जैसे—

- तुमने कौन-कौन से पक्षी देखे हैं ?
- शहद बनाने वाली मक्खी को क्या कहते हैं ?
- वह कहाँ रहती है ?

कई बार कहानी की तैयारी कराते-कराते पाठ के सार व कहानी की मुख्य बात भी बच्चों के सम्मुख रखी जा सकती है जिससे बच्चे उसे समझने के लिए पूर्ण रूप से तैयार हो सकें। इससे बच्चों को पाठ पढ़ने और समझने में सरलता होगी। इस प्रकार पाठ की आवश्यक पृष्ठभूमि का निर्माण करने के पश्चात् बच्चों को पाठ का शीर्षक बताया जा सकता है, जैसे— बच्चों, आज हम 'कबूतर और मधुमक्खियाँ' नाम की कहानी पढ़ेंगे और मालूम करेंगे, इस कहानी में क्या हुआ।

2. नवीन शब्द परिचय

पाठ का प्रारंभिक परिचय देने के बाद बच्चों को उसमें आए नवीन शब्दों से परिचित कराना भी आवश्यक है। इस

सोपान के अंतर्गत यह निश्चित कर लेना आवश्यक है कि बच्चों ने प्रत्येक नए शब्द को संपूर्ण रूप से समझ लिया है। संपूर्ण रूप से हमारा तात्पर्य शब्द के उच्चारण, उसकी आकृति (लेखन) तथा उसके अर्थ से है। नवीन शब्दों से तात्पर्य प्रत्येक ऐसे शब्द से है जिन्हें बच्चे पहली बार लिखित रूप में देख रहे हैं और परिचय का अर्थ है कि बच्चा शब्द की आकृति, ध्वनि एवं अर्थ से भली-भाँति परिचित हो जाए। ऐसे नए शब्दों को अर्थपूर्ण संदर्भ में बोलकर बच्चों को उसके उच्चारण से परिचित कराएँ और फिर उन्हें श्यामपट पर लिखें जिससे वे शब्दों को देख सकें और अपने मन में उनकी बनावट ग्रहण कर सकें। बच्चों को शब्दों, ध्वनियों, आकृतियों और उनका अर्थ पहचानने में सहायता देने के लिए पर्याप्त अभ्यास दिए जाएँ। जैसा कि कहा गया है, शब्द की अवधारणा को अर्थपूर्ण संदर्भ में स्पष्ट किया जाए, शब्द को वाक्य में या किसी सार्थक प्रसंग में इस प्रकार प्रयुक्त किया जाए कि बच्चों को उसका अर्थ मालूम हो जाए। इसी विधि से पाठ के सभी नवीन शब्दों को श्यामपट पर लिख दिया जाए। यहाँ इस बात को स्पष्ट करना ज़रूरी है कि यदि बच्चों को उच्चारण, बनावट तथा अर्थ— किसी भी दृष्टि से शब्द की जानकारी नहीं है तो वह उसके लिए नया शब्द ही माना जाएगा। उदाहरण के लिए 'अच्छा' शब्द 'च्' और 'छ' का संयोग होने के कारण उच्चारण तथा बनावट दोनों दृष्टियों से नवीन है। 'अच्छा' शब्द सीख लेने के पश्चात गुच्छा और मच्छर शब्द पढ़ने में बच्चों को कोई कठिनाई नहीं होगी। यदि वह गुच्छा और मच्छर के अर्थ नहीं जानता है तो उसे इन शब्दों की अवधारणा स्पष्ट करनी पड़ेगी। ऐसी अवस्था में गुच्छा और मच्छर शब्दों को अर्थ की दृष्टि से नवीन माना जाएगा। किसी शब्द की पहचान कई विधियों द्वारा कराई जा सकती है, जैसे—

(क) आकृति संकेत द्वारा

- (i) शब्द को अन्य शब्दों में पहचानना
- (ii) शब्दों को वाक्यों में पहचानना

(ख) चित्र संकेत द्वारा

(ग) ध्वनि संकेत द्वारा

(घ) शब्दों के भागों की समानता द्वारा

शब्द को अच्छी तरह पहचानने के लिए आवश्यक है कि बच्चे उसे बार-बार देखें और बोलें। इसके लिए जितने अधिक अभ्यास दिए जाएँ उतनी ही जल्दी बच्चा उस शब्द को पहचान लेगा और समझ लेगा। पाठ में आए प्रत्येक नए शब्द का परिचय देते समय उसे श्यामपट पर लिखना अत्यंत आवश्यक है। शब्द का अर्थ जानने के लिए समानार्थक, विलोम, लिंग, मूल शब्द आदि का प्रयोग करना वांछनीय है। श्यामपट पर लिखे गए शब्दों को बार-बार बुलवाकर दृढ़ करते रहें।

3. वाचन

इस सोपान के अंतर्गत शिक्षक द्वारा आदर्श-वाचन तथा विद्यार्थियों द्वारा सस्वर वाचन एवं मौन वाचन लिया गया है। शिक्षक को चाहिए कि वह बच्चों के सम्मुख एक बार पाठ का आदर्श वाचन अवश्य करे। इससे बच्चों का उच्चारण और भी स्पष्ट हो जाता है तथा बलाघात और उचित विराम के साथ पढ़ने के लिए प्रोत्साहन भी मिलता है।

सस्वर वाचन भी किसी विशेष उद्देश्य के लिए कराना चाहिए। शिक्षक को इस बात का ध्यान रखना चाहिए कि बच्चे यांत्रिक ढंग से किसी पाठ का वाचन न करें। सस्वर वाचन में कहानी, कविता या किसी अन्य पाठ के विभिन्न अंशों को बारी-बारी से उच्च स्वर में पढ़ने के लिए कहा जाता है। कभी एक-एक अनुच्छेद और कभी एक-एक पृष्ठ को पढ़ाया जा सकता है। इस प्रकार के वाचन को विशिष्ट प्रश्न पूछकर उद्देश्यपूर्ण बनाया जा सकता है, इन प्रश्नों का उपयोग निम्नलिखित के लिए किया जा सकता है :

- किसी घटना का क्रम जानने के लिए
- किसी घटना का विस्तृत विवरण जानने के लिए

- परिणाम ज्ञात करने के लिए
- अनुमान लगाने के लिए
- प्रत्यास्मरण के लिए
- तुलना के लिए
- कारण जानने के लिए, आदि ।

इस बात का ध्यान रखें कि कक्षा के प्रत्येक बच्चे को कहानी का कोई न कोई अंश सस्वर वाचन के रूप में पढ़ने का अवसर अवश्य मिले। कक्षा तीन से ही बच्चों को मौन वाचन का अभ्यास शुरू करा देना चाहिए।

कई बार प्रत्येक पृष्ठ पर दिए गए चित्रों की सहायता से विविध प्रश्नों द्वारा कहानी के वाक्यों को निकलवाया जा सकता है। शिक्षक बच्चों से ऐसे प्रश्न करें कि उनके उत्तर खोजने के लिए वे पाठ की पंक्तियों या अनुच्छेदों को मन ही मन पढ़ें। यदि बच्चे का उत्तर सही है तो स्पष्ट है कि उसने इन पंक्तियों का मंतव्य भली-भाँति ज्ञात कर लिया है और यदि उसका उत्तर सही नहीं है तो उसे फिर निर्दिष्ट पंक्तियों को पढ़कर सही उत्तर खोजने के लिए कहा जा सकता है। यह एक महत्वपूर्ण सोपान है क्योंकि बच्चा इस समय पहली बार अर्थपूर्ण इकाइयों के पठन से परिचित होता है और इस प्रकार के पठन को निश्चित तरीकों से समझने और तत्संबंधी ज्ञान विकसित करने का अभ्यास करता है।

4. भाषा-संबंधी कुशलताओं का विकास

पाठ की विषय-वस्तु को समझने के साथ-साथ यह भी अपेक्षित है कि बच्चे में भाषा-संबंधी योग्यताओं का निरंतर विकास होता रहे। भाषा एक योग्यात्मक विषय है अतः भाषा सिखाने के लिए योग्यताओं को व्यवस्थित ढंग से विकसित करना आवश्यक है।

सामान्य रूप से 'पढ़ना' के अंतर्गत अर्थग्रहण और शब्दबोध संबंधी कुशलताएँ होती हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ के अंत में (पाठ्यपुस्तक में) इन कुशलताओं के विकास के लिए अभ्यास दिए गए हैं परंतु केवल ये ही अभ्यास पर्याप्त नहीं हैं। अतः प्रत्येक पुस्तक की अभ्यास-पुस्तिका में इन कुशलताओं से संबंधित कुछ अतिरिक्त अभ्यास दिए गए हैं। ये अभ्यास इस प्रकार तैयार किए गए हैं कि इनके द्वारा विभिन्न भाषायी योग्यताओं का विकास हो सके। अर्थग्रहण की कुशलताओं में प्राथमिक कक्षाओं के लिए मुख्य विचार जानने, विस्तृत विवरण ज्ञात करने, कारण जानने, परिणाम ज्ञात करने, निष्कर्ष निकालने, घटनाक्रम पहचानने, प्रत्यास्मरण करने, अनुमान लगाने, अप्रासंगिक बात का पता लगाने, सामान्यीकरण, तुलना करना तथा वर्गीकरण आदि कुशलताएँ आती हैं। शब्द संबंधी कुशलताओं में शब्द को पहचानना, शब्द के अर्थ जानना, शब्द-निर्माण, शब्द-रूपांतर, प्रत्यय-निर्माण तथा मुहावरों के अर्थ आदि आते हैं। शिक्षक इस प्रकार के अभ्यास स्वयं भी बना सकते हैं अथवा अभ्यास-पुस्तिका में दिए गए अभ्यासों द्वारा भी इन कुशलताओं का विकास कर सकते हैं। भाषा की सभी योग्यताएँ— सुनना, बोलना, पढ़ना, लिखना तथा चिंतन करने का विकास साथ-साथ होना ज़रूरी है। अभ्यास करवाते समय इस बात को ध्यान में रखा जाए।

5. अनुभव-विस्तार के क्रियाकलाप

भाषा-ज्ञान एकांगी ही न रहे, इसके लिए यह आवश्यक है कि भाषा की योग्यताओं के साथ-साथ अन्य विषयों के साथ भी उसका संबंध स्थापित किया जाए। भाषा-ज्ञान कराते समय यदि पर्यावरण अध्ययन, गणित आदि विषयों के संबंध में कोई बात आए तो उसका स्पष्टीकरण आवश्यक है। उदाहरण के लिए पक्षी के बारे में दी गई किसी कहानी के साथ विज्ञान के संदर्भ में चिड़ियों, उनकी आदतों, उनके भोजन, उनके रहने और अन्य संबंधित बातों के बारे में सामान्य रूप से चर्चा करने का अवसर मिल सकता है।

कहानी में भोजन के संबंध में आने वाले किसी प्रसंग की स्वास्थ्य, भोजन के पोषक तत्वों आदि के साथ चर्चा

की जा सकती है। हमें यह स्मरण रखना चाहिए कि भाषा का पाठ, पाठ्यक्रम से अलग कोई विषय नहीं है बल्कि उसमें अन्य विषयों के साथ जुड़ने की अधिक संभावना होती है। इससे भाषा-ज्ञान समृद्ध होता है।

इसके अतिरिक्त कविता, कहानी, अभिनय एवं संगीत द्वारा भी पाठ में वर्णित विषय-वस्तु को स्पष्ट किया जा सकता है। बच्चों के रचनात्मक तथा सृजनात्मक विकास के लिए उनसे कला संबंधी अथवा लेखन संबंधी क्रियाकलाप करवाए जा सकते हैं, जैसे— चित्र, चार्ट, कार्ड, एलबम बनाना, पत्र-पत्रिकाओं से सामग्री एकत्र करना, खिलौने, मुखौटे बनाना, मॉडल बनाना आदि। समय-समय पर विद्यालय में बाल-सभा का आयोजन करना तथा दर्शनीय स्थानों की सैर को ले जाना बच्चों के ज्ञान एवं अनुभव को विस्तृत बनाने में बहुत सहायक हो सकता है। भाषा के किसी पाठ द्वारा केवल पढ़ना सीखना-सिखाना ही अंतिम लक्ष्य नहीं है अपितु बच्चों में अपेक्षित मानवीय गुणों और आदतों का निर्माण करना भी है। इसके अतिरिक्त और महत्वपूर्ण बात यह भी है कि बच्चों की कठिनाइयों और कमियों का निदान कर उनका आवश्यक उपचार किया जाए, तभी निर्दिष्ट लक्ष्य की संप्राप्ति होगी।

किसी भी आदर्श या अच्छी पाठ-योजना के कई पहलू होते हैं। हमें किसी भी पाठ को व्यवस्थित ढंग से क्रमिक रूप में विकसित करना चाहिए ताकि वह उद्देश्यपूर्ण और उपयोगी हो सके।



गांधी जी का जन्तर

तुम्हें एक जन्तर देता हूं। जब भी तुम्हें सन्देह हो या तुम्हारा अहम् तुम पर हावी होने लगे, तो यह कसौटी आजमाओ :

जो सबसे गरीब और कमजोर आदमी तुमने देखा हो, उसकी शकल याद करो और अपने दिल से पूछो कि जो कदम उठाने का तुम विचार कर रहे हो, वह उस आदमी के लिए कितना उपयोगी होगा। क्या उससे उसे कुछ लाभ पहुंचेगा? क्या उससे वह अपने ही जीवन और भाग्य पर कुछ काबू रख सकेगा? यानि क्या उससे उन करोड़ों लोगों को स्वराज्य मिल सकेगा जिनके पेट भूखे हैं और आत्मा अतृप्त है?

तब तुम देखोगे कि तुम्हारा सन्देह मिट रहा है और अहम् समाप्त होता जा रहा है।

म. ५. ११३

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भारत का संविधान

भाग 4अ

नागरिकों के मूल कर्त्तव्य

अनुच्छेद 51अ

मूल कर्त्तव्य - भारत के प्रत्येक नागरिक का यह कर्त्तव्य होगा कि वह -

- (क) संविधान का पालन करे और उसके आदर्शों, संस्थाओं, राष्ट्रध्वज और राष्ट्रगान का आदर करे,
- (ख) स्वतंत्रता के लिए हमारे राष्ट्रीय आंदोलन को प्रेरित करने वाले उच्च आदर्शों को हृदय में संजोए रखे और उनका पालन करे,
- (ग) भारत की संप्रभुता, एकता और अखंडता की रक्षा करे और उसे अभ्युन्नत बनाए रखे,
- (घ) देश की रक्षा करे और आह्वान किए जाने पर राष्ट्र की सेवा करे,
- (ङ) भारत के सभी लोगों में समरसता और समान भावुत्व की भावना का निर्माण करे जो धर्म, भाषा और प्रवेश या वर्ग पर आधारित सभी भेदभावों से परे हो, ऐसी प्रथाओं का त्याग करे जो महिलाओं के सम्मान के विरुद्ध हो,
- (च) हमारी सामाजिक संस्कृति की गौरवशाली परंपरा का महत्त्व समझे और उसका परिरक्षण करे,
- (छ) प्राकृतिक पर्यावरण की, जिसके अंतर्गत वन, झील, नदी और जन्म जीव हैं, रक्षा करे और उसका संवर्धन करे तथा प्रणिमान को प्रति वयाभाव रखे,
- (ज) वैज्ञानिक दृष्टिकोण, नानबबाध और जनार्जन तथा सुधार की भावना का विकास करे,
- (झ) सार्वजनिक संपत्ति को सुरक्षित रखे और हिंसा से दूर रहे, और
- (ञ) व्यक्तिगत और सामूहिक गतिविधियों के सभी क्षेत्रों में उत्कर्ष की ओर बढ़ने का सतत प्रयास करे, जिससे राष्ट्र निरंतर बढ़ते हुए प्रगल्भ और उपलब्धि की नई ऊँचाइयों को छू सके।

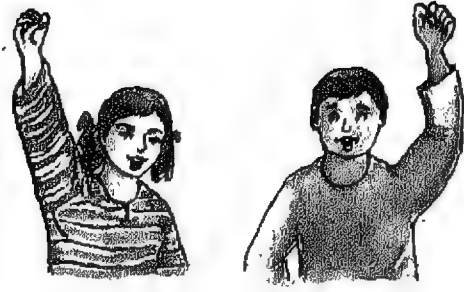
वीर तुम बढ़े चलो
धीर तुम बढ़े चलो।

हाथ में ध्वजा रहे
बाल-बल सजा रहे
ध्वज कभी झुके नहीं
दल कभी रुके नहीं
वीर तुम बढ़े चलो
धीर तुम बढ़े चलो।

सामने पहाड़ हो
सिंह की दहाड़ हो
तुम निडर हटो नहीं
तुम निडर डटो वहाँ
वीर तुम बढ़े चलो
धीर तुम बढ़े चलो।



अभ्यास संकेत : यह कविता एक प्रयाण गीत है। बच्चे इसे याद करें और कदम-से-कदम मिलाकर चलते हुए जोशपूर्ण स्वर में गाएँ। आवश्यकतानुसार कुछ पंक्तियों का भाव स्पष्ट करें। बच्चों से ही झंडे बनवाएँ जिन्हें हाथ में ले वे प्रयाण गीत का अभ्यास करें। कोई और झंडा गीत सुनाएँ। बातचीत द्वारा इन बातों पर ध्यान दिलाएँ— तिरंगा झंडा हमारे देश की शान है। इसे सदा ऊँचा रखना चाहिए। इसका सम्मान करना चाहिए। हमें बाधाओं की चिंता किए बिना अपने मार्ग पर आगे बढ़ते रहना चाहिए।



मेघ गरजते रहें
मेघ बरसते रहें
बिजलियाँ कड़क उठें
वीर तुम बढ़े चलो
धीर तुम बढ़े चलो।

प्रात हो कि रात हो
संग हो न साथ हो
सूर्य-से बढ़े चलो
चंद्र-से बढ़े चलो
वीर तुम बढ़े चलो
धीर तुम बढ़े चलो।

— द्वारिकाप्रसाद माहेश्वरी

अभ्यास

1. इस कविता को याद करो। फिर कदम-से-कदम मिलाते हुए इस गीत को गाओ।

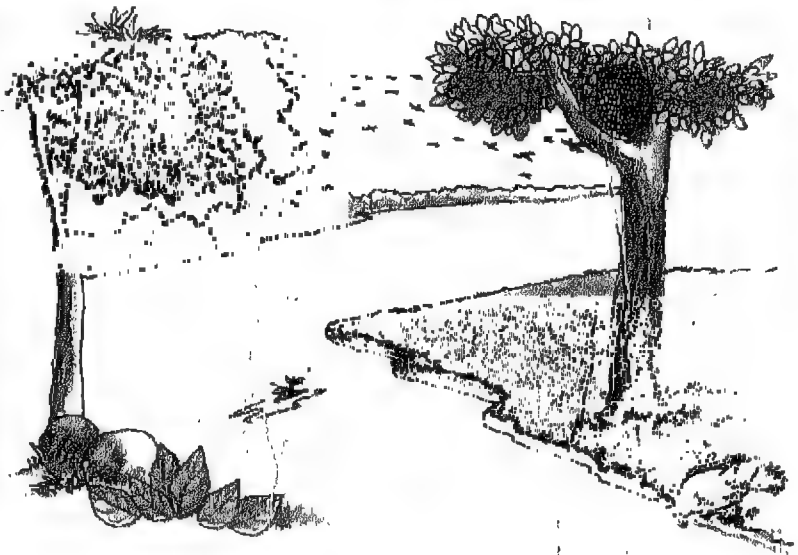
कबूतर और मधुमक्खियाँ

मधुमक्खियाँ	प्रयत्न	छटपटाना	दया
उपाय	प्रतीक्षा	विश्वास	परेशान
झपटीं	रक्षा	सनसनाहट	

नदी के किनारे एक पेड़ था। पेड़ पर मधुमक्खियों का छत्ता था। छत्ते में बहुत-सी मधुमक्खियाँ रहती थीं।

एक दिन की बात है। मधुमक्खियाँ छत्ते से बाहर निकलीं। निकलते ही उनमें से एक बड़ी मधुमक्खी नदी में गिर पड़ी। उसने पानी से निकलने का बहुत प्रयत्न किया, पर वह निकल न सकी। वह

नदी की धारा में बहने लगी। नदी के किनारे एक कबूतर पानी पी रहा था। उसने मधुमक्खी को पानी में छटपटाते हुए देखा। उसे मधुमक्खी पर बहुत दया आई। वह उसे बचाने का उपाय सोचने लगा। अचानक उसे एक उपाय सूझा। वह तेजी से उड़कर पेड़ के नीचे पहुँचा। पेड़ के नीचे सूखे पत्ते पड़े थे। कबूतर ने एक पत्ता अपनी

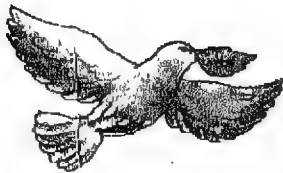
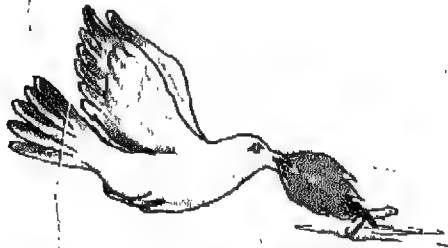


अध्यापन संकेत : नए और कठिन शब्दों को श्यामपट पर लिखकर उनका शुद्ध उच्चारण करें तथा बच्चों से जरवाएँ। प्रयत्न, प्रतीक्षा, प्रसन्नता में (प्+र) के संयुक्त लिखित रूप 'प्र' की ओर विशेष ध्यान दिलाएँ। एक ही शब्द के दो बार प्रयोग करते जोड़ें—किनारे-किनारे, धीरे-धीरे, घूम-घूमकर को स्पष्ट करें कि एक शब्द को दो बार कहने से उस बात पर अधिक जोर पड़ता है जैसे—धीरे-धीरे का अर्थ है बहुत धीरे। मुसीबत में कैसे लोगों की मदद करनी चाहिए, आसई के कष्ट का परिणाम अच्छा होता है—मूल्यों को उभारें। कक्षा में कहानी का अभिनय कराएँ। बच्चों को समूहों में बाँटकर कबूतर, शिकारी और मधुमक्खियों के बारे में चर्चा करने तथा उससे प्राप्त जानकारी को पूरी कक्षा को बताने का अवसर दें।

चोंच में दबाया और नदी के किनारे-किनारे उड़ने लगा। कुछ ही दूर उसे मधुमक्खी दिखाई दी। उसने पत्ता मधुमक्खी के बिलकुल आगे डाल दिया। मधुमक्खी पत्ते पर चढ़ गई और डूबने से बच गई।



कबूतर कुछ देर तक पत्ते के साथ-साथ उड़ता रहा। उसने देखा कि मधुमक्खी तो बिलकुल हिलती-डुलती नहीं। वह सोचने लगा— क्यों न मैं यह पत्ता पेड़ के नीचे ले जाकर रख दूँ। उसने पानी में अपनी चोंच बढ़ाई और पत्ता चोंच में दबाकर पेड़ के नीचे ले आया। कुछ देर तक वह इस बात की प्रतीक्षा करता रहा कि मधुमक्खी हिलती-डुलती है या नहीं। मधुमक्खी कुछ हिलने लगी। वह धीरे-धीरे पत्ते पर चलने भी लगी। उसने कबूतर की ओर देखा। कबूतर को विश्वास हो गया कि अब मधुमक्खी बच जाएगी। मधुमक्खी धीरे-धीरे उड़कर अपने छत्ते में चली गई।



एक दिन एक शिकारी उधर आया। वह नदी के किनारे घूम-घूमकर चिड़ियों का शिकार करने लगा। उसके भय से सभी पक्षी इधर-उधर उड़ने लगे। जिस कबूतर ने मधुमक्खी को बचाया था, वह भी उड़ता हुआ उसी पेड़ के पास आ गया। डर के मारे वह पेड़ के पत्तों में छिप गया। मधुमक्खी ने उस कबूतर को देखा तो तुरंत अपनी सहेलियों से कहा— हमें किसी भी तरह इस कबूतर की रक्षा करनी चाहिए। उसकी बात सुनते ही कई मधुमक्खियाँ छत्ते से निकल पड़ीं।



उधर शिकारी ने कबूतर को देख लिया था। वह उसकी ओर निशाना साध ही रहा था कि मधुमक्खियाँ तेज़ी से उसकी ओर झपटतीं। शिकारी घबरा गया और उसका निशाना चूक गया। कबूतर ने तीर की सनसनाहट सुनी। उसने डर के मारे अपनी आँखें बंद कर लीं। उसे कुछ मधुमक्खियाँ पेड़ की ओर आती दिखाई दीं।

कबूतर सब कुछ समझ गया। उसने मधुमक्खियों की ओर देखा और मन-ही-मन उनको धन्यवाद दिया।

क्योंकि

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) कबूतर ने मधुमक्खी की मदद कैसे की?
- (ख) शिकारी नदी के किनारे क्यों आया था?
- (ग) कबूतर पेड़ के पत्तों में क्यों छिप गया?
- (घ) मधुमक्खियों ने कबूतर की सहायता कैसे की?
- (ङ) यदि मधुमक्खियाँ शिकारी की ओर न झपटतीं तो क्या होता?

2. ढोलो और लिखो

मलखन	मकखी
रत्न	प्रयत्न
कन्या	धन्यवाद
प्रेम	प्रतीक्षा

3. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

आँख	आँखें
बात
रात
पुस्तक

4. सही शब्द चुनकर वाक्य पूरे करो

शिकारी प्रयत्न चोंच मधुमक्खियों प्रतीक्षा डर

- (क) पेड़ पर का छत्ता था।
(ख) मधुमक्खी ने पानी से निकलने का किया।
(ग) कबूतर ने एक पत्ता अपनी में दबाया।
(घ) के मारे कबूतर ने अपनी आँखें बंद कर लीं।
(ङ) ने कबूतर को देख लिया था।
(च) कबूतर मधुमक्खी के हिलने-डुलने की करता रहा।

5. करो

- (क) कबूतर, मधुमक्खी और शिकारी में से आपको कौन अच्छा लगा और क्यों? चर्चा करो।
(ख) शहद के बारे में जानकारी प्राप्त करो।

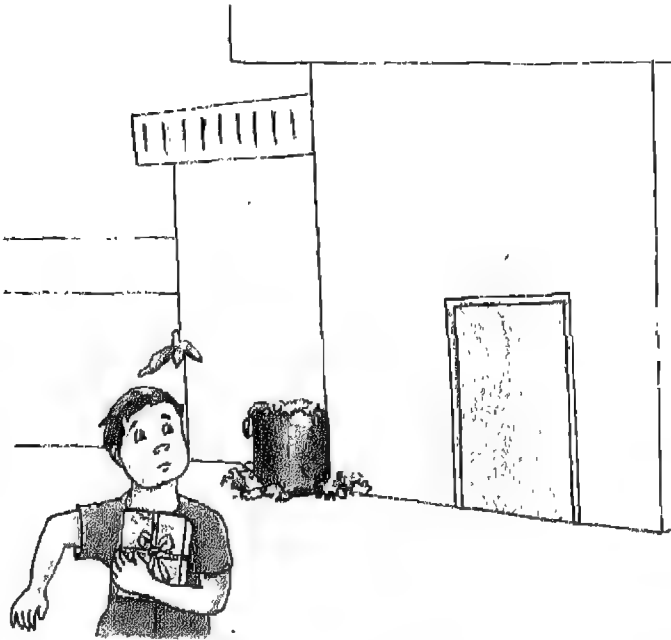
स्वच्छता

स्वच्छता
नगरपालिका
मोहल्ला

कूड़ेदान
दोष
उत्साह

इकट्ठा
गंदगी
सप्ताह

भिनकना
प्रारंभ
व्यक्ति



मोहन इस शहर में नया-नया आया था। मोहन पढ़ने में बहुत होशियार था। वह कक्षा में हमेशा प्रथम आता। खेलकूद में वह सबसे आगे रहता। जल्दी ही कक्षा में उसके कई मित्र बन गए। अजय उसका सबसे अच्छा मित्र था।

एक दिन अजय ने मोहन को अपने जन्मदिन पर बुलाया। मोहन ने उसे उपहार में देने के लिए कहानियों की एक पुस्तक खरीदी। उसे रंगीन कागज में लपेटा और अजय के घर चल पड़ा। जैसे ही मोहन अजय की गली में पहुँचा, उसके ऊपर केले का एक छिलका आ गिरा।

अध्यापन संकेत : इकट्ठा, मट्ठा, गड़्ठा आदि शब्द श्यामपट पर लिखकर ड, छ, ट, ठ, ड, ढ, द, ह के अ रहित रूप का अन्य व्यंजन के साथ संयुक्त होने पर हलन्त () लगाकर लिखने का अभ्यास करवाएँ। वचन के अनुसार शब्द के रूप-परिवर्तन का बोध उदाहरण देकर कराइए, जैसे— नाली, नालियाँ, नालियों में आदि। बातचीत के द्वारा उभारिए : गंदगी से बीमारियाँ फैलती हैं। स्वच्छ रहने के साथ-साथ हमें घर-पड़ोस भी स्वच्छ रखना चाहिए। कक्षा को दो समूहों में बाँटकर स्वच्छता से होने वाले लाभों और गंदगी से होने वाली हानियों पर चर्चा करवाएँ। उन्हें विद्यालय में सफ़ाई सप्ताह मनाने तथा सार्वजनिक स्थानों की सफ़ाई में भाग लेने का अवसर दीजिए।



“छि, छि! कितनी बुरी आदत है सड़क पर छिलका फेंकना”, मोहन ने मन में सोचा। उसने छिलका उठाया और इधर-उधर देखा। कुछ दूरी पर उसे एक कूड़ेदान दिखाई दिया। उसने छिलका उसमें डाल दिया। बहुत-सा कूड़ा कूड़ेदान के बाहर फैला हुआ था। वहाँ मक्खियाँ भिनक रही थीं और चारों ओर गंदगी फैली हुई थी।

कुछ और आगे बढ़ा तो मोहन को बड़ी बदबू आई। उसने देखा — नालियों में कूड़े के कारण पानी रुका हुआ है। इसी पानी से बदबू आ रही है।

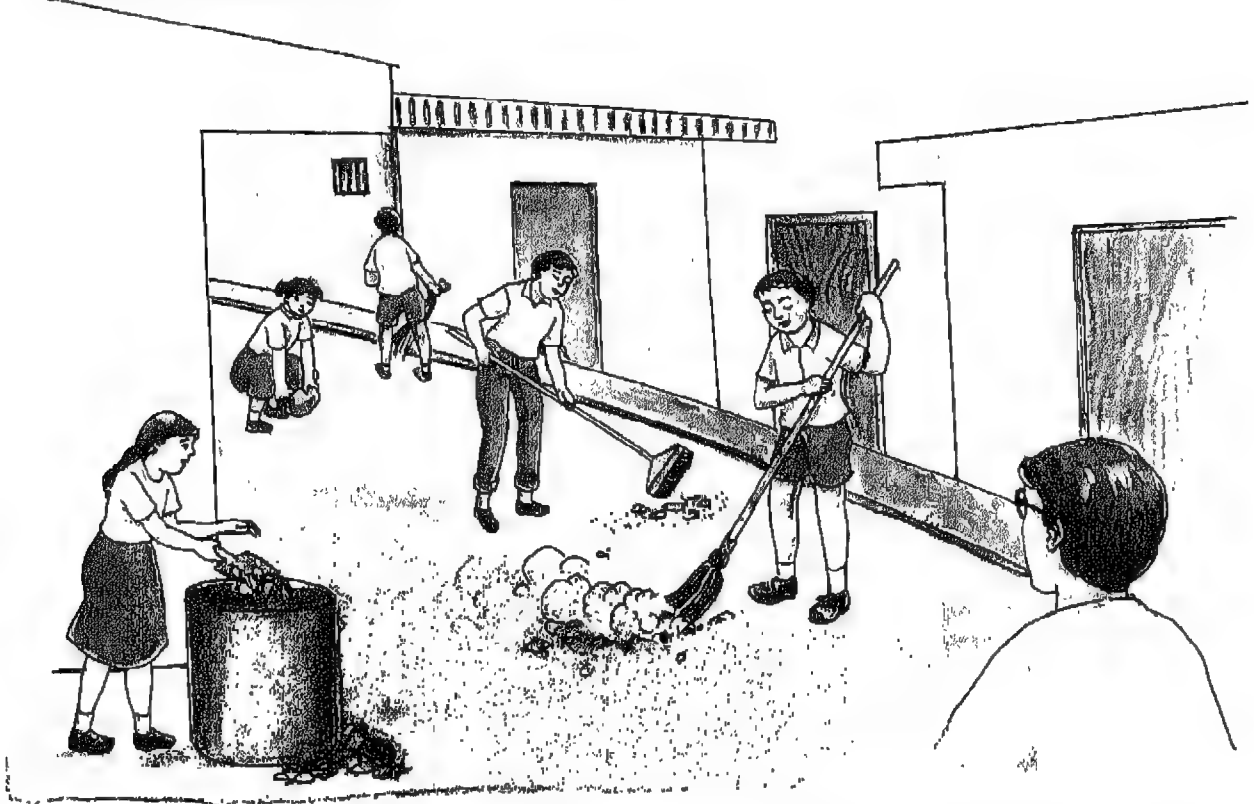
मोहन नाक पर रूमाल रखे अजय के घर पहुँचा। वहाँ अजय के और भी कई मित्र आए हुए थे। अजय ने मोहन को अपनी माँ और पिता जी से मिलाया। अजय की दादी जी बीमार थीं। मोहन उनसे भी मिला। मेज़ पर खाने की चीज़ें रखी थीं, जिन पर बार-बार मक्खियाँ आ जाती थीं। मोहन ने अजय से कहा, “अजय, तुम्हारे मोहल्ले में इतनी गंदगी क्यों है? क्या नगरपालिका इसे साफ़ नहीं कराती?”

अजय की माता जी ने कहा, “बेटा, नगरपालिका की गाड़ी आया करती है। जगह-जगह कूड़ेदान भी हैं, पर कुछ लोग उनमें कूड़ा नहीं डालते। वे कूड़ा सड़क पर ही फेंक देते हैं इसीलिए सफ़ाई नहीं रहती।”

दूसरे दिन पाठशाला में मोहन ने अपने अध्यापक को यह बात बताई। अध्यापक ने कहा, “तुम ठीक कहते हो, मोहन। गंदगी बहुत से रोगों की जड़ है। नगरपालिका का काम नगर को स्वच्छ रखना तो है,

पर हमें भी नगरपालिका की सहायता करनी चाहिए। चलो, एक दिन हम सब अजय के मोहल्ले में चलें और स्वयं सफ़ाई का काम प्रारंभ करें।”

रविवार के दिन सभी अजय के मोहल्ले में गए। सबके हाथ में एक-एक टोकरी और झाड़ू थी। सड़क पर झाड़ू लगाकर उन्होंने कूड़ा इकट्ठा किया। नालियों की सफ़ाई की और पानी बहने का रास्ता बनाया। उनमें मक्खी-मच्छर मारने वाली दवा डाली। कूड़ेदान पर ढक्कन रखा। मोहल्ले में रहने वाले सभी लोग बाहर निकल आए और उन्हें देखने लगे। बच्चों में बहुत उत्साह था। देखते ही देखते पूरा मोहल्ला स्वच्छ हो गया।



अध्यापक ने लोगों को समझाया कि वे घर का कूड़ा कूड़ेदान में ही डालें। वे अपने घर के आसपास सफ़ाई रखें क्योंकि गंदगी से रोग फैलते हैं।

उन्होंने कहा, “मेरी पाठशाला के बालक सप्ताह में एक बार यहाँ आया करेंगे। वे आपके मोहल्ले को साफ़ करेंगे। आप भी इस काम में इनकी सहायता करें।”

एक व्यक्ति ने आगे बढ़कर कहा, “नहीं, नहीं। इन बच्चों के आने की कोई आवश्यकता नहीं। हम लोग स्वयं ही अपने मोहल्ले को स्वच्छ रखेंगे। अब आप इसे हमेशा साफ़-सुथरा पाएँगे।”

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) अजय के मोहल्ले में मोहन ने क्या देखा?
- (ख) मोहल्ले में गंदगी क्यों फैली हुई थी?
- (ग) अभ्यापक बच्चों को अजय के मोहल्ले में क्यों ले गए?
- (घ) हम नगरपालिका की मदद कैसे कर सकते हैं?
- (ङ) हमें अपना घर और मोहल्ला क्यों साफ़ रखना चाहिए?

2. वाक्य पूरे करो

स्वच्छ पानी मक्खी-मच्छर कूड़ेदान स्वच्छता

- (क) मोहन को का बहुत ध्यान रहता था।
- (ख) नालियों में कूड़े के कारण रुका हुआ था।
- (ग) नगरपालिका का काम शहर को रखना है।
- (घ) कूड़ा में डालना चाहिए।
- (ङ) नालियों में मारने वाली दवा डाली।

3. बोलो और लिखो

इकट्ठा	गट्ठर	भट्ठी
प्रथम	प्रतिदिन	प्रारंभ
ढक्कन	पक्का	चक्की
सप्ताह	गुप्तचर	

4. विपरीत अर्थवाले शब्द लिखो

गंदगी	X	सफाई	आरंभ	X	अंत
बदबू	X	बंद	X
गुरिंकल	X	पास	X

5. लिखो

मोहल्ला	आरंभ	स्वच्छता	नगरपालिका	उत्साह
स्वयं	मित्र	प्रतिदिन	सप्ताह	गंदगी

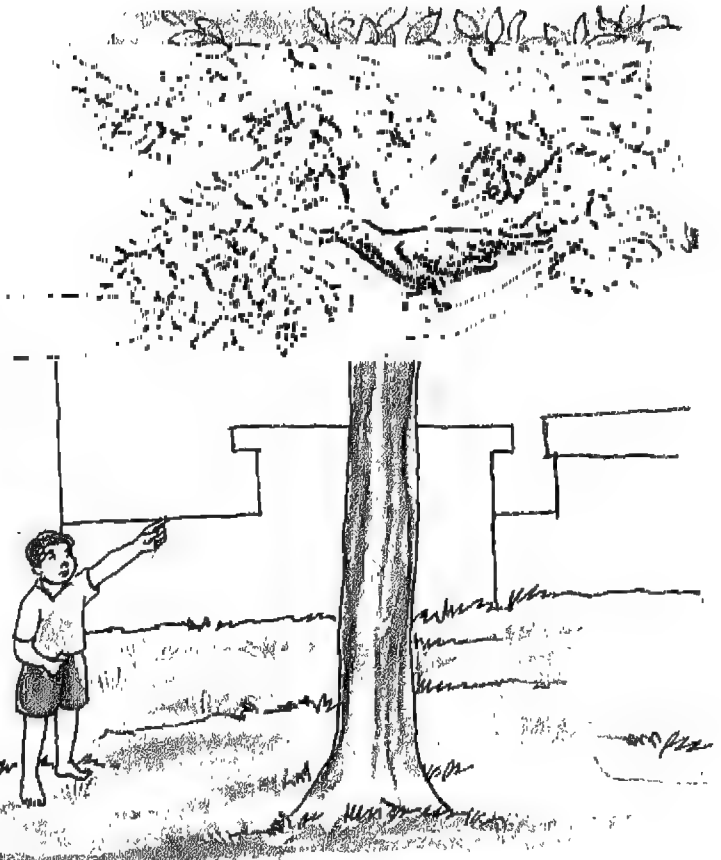
कोयल

देखो कोयल काली है पर
मीठी है इसकी बोली
इसने ही तो कूक-कूक कर
आमों में मिसरी घोली

कोयल ! कोयल ! सच बतलाओ
क्या संदेशा लाई —
बहुत दिनों के बाद आज फिर
इस डाली पर आई हो।

क्या गाती हो, किसे बुलाती
बतला दो कोयल रानी
प्यासी धरती देख माँगती
हो क्या मेघों से पानी?

कोयल ! यह मिठास क्या तुमने
अपनी माँ से पाई है
माँ ने ही क्या तुमको मीठी
बोली यह सिखलाई है?



अध्यापन संकेत : लय, तान और स्वर के उतार-चढ़ाव के साथ कविता को रस्यं पढ़कर सुनाएँ। बच्चे सुनें और दोहराएँ। कविता की इन पंक्तियों की ओर उनका ध्यान दिलाएँ और चर्चा द्वारा इनका भाव स्पष्ट करें : आमों में मिसरी घोली — अपनी मीठी आवाज़ से आमों को मिश्री जैसा मीठा बना दिया है। इसी प्रकार स्पष्ट करें — प्यासी धरती देख माँगती हो क्या मेघों से पानी, राबसे मीठे-मीठे बोलो। ध्यान दिलाएँ मीठी बोली सबको प्यारी लगती है। हमें मीठे बोल बोलने चाहिए। कोयल या किसी अन्य पक्षी के बारे में कोई और कविता सुनाएँ।



डाल-डाल पर उड़ना गाना
जिसने तुम्हें सिखाया है
सबसे मीठे-मीठे बोलो
यह भी तुम्हें बताया है।

बहुत भली हो तुमने माँ की
बात सदा ही है मानी
इसीलिए तो तुम कहलाती
हो सब चिड़ियों की रानी।

— सुभद्राकुमारी चौहान

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) कोयल की आवाज़ कैसी होती है?
- (ख) कोयल ने अपनी माँ से क्या-क्या सीखा?
- (ग) कोयल को चिड़ियों की रानी क्यों कहते हैं?

2. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

मिसरी सा मीठा
बरफ़ सा
दूध सा सफ़ेद
कोयले सा
..... सा लंबा
..... सा हलका

3. करो

- (क) इस कविता को याद करो। कोयल से संबंधित कोई अन्य कविता याद करके कक्षा में सुनाओ।
- (ख) कोयल का चित्र बनाओ।

ईश्वरचंद्र विद्यासागर

ईश्वरचंद्र
विशेष

विद्यासागर
संकेत

स्टेशन
व्यक्ति

लालटेन
चरणों

एक छोटा-सा स्टेशन था। कोई-कोई गाड़ी ही वहाँ रुकती थी। दूर से सीटी की आवाज़ सुनाई दे रही थी। स्टेशन मास्टर हाथ में लालटेन लिए कमरे से बाहर आए। तभी छुकछुक-छुकछुक करती गाड़ी स्टेशन पर आ रुकी।

मनमोहन हाथ में सूटकेस लिए डिब्बे के दरवाज़े पर खड़ा था। उसने आवाज़ लगाई, "कुली ! कुली !" इधर-उधर देखा पर वहाँ कोई कुली न था। छोटा-सा स्टेशन होने के कारण गाड़ी यहाँ दो मिनट रुकती थी। तभी गार्ड ने हरी झंडी दिखाई। वह जल्दी से नीचे उतरा। इतने में गाड़ी चल पड़ी।

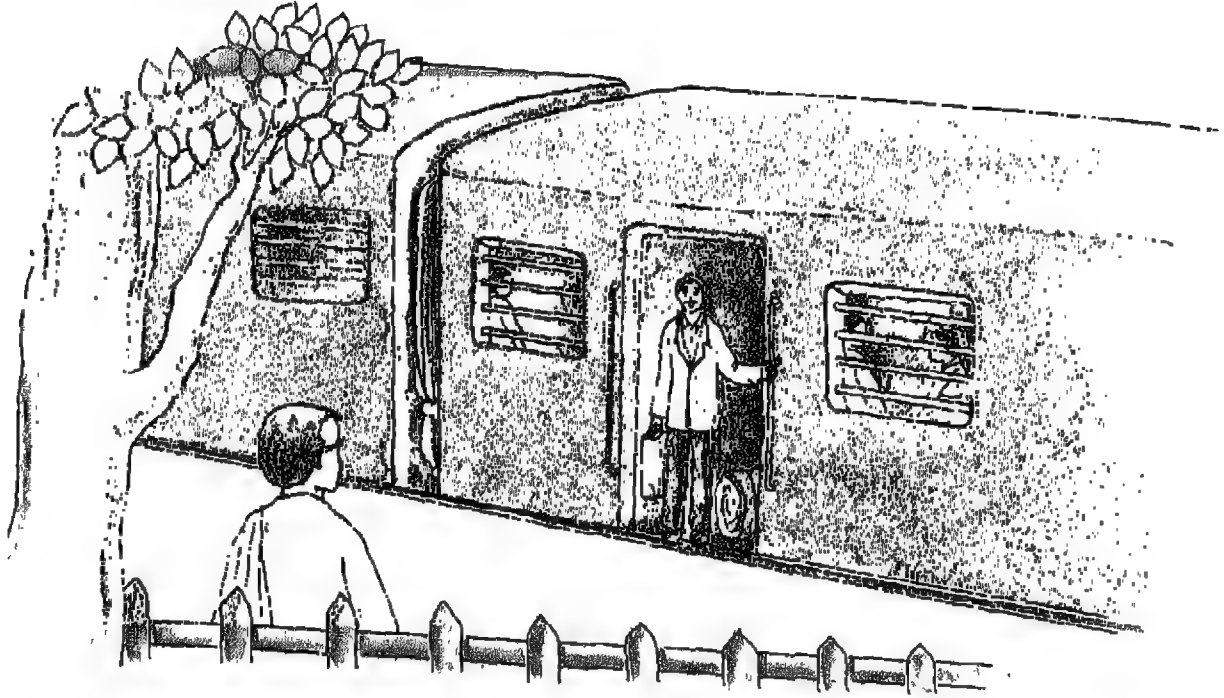
उसने फिर आवाज़ दी, "कुली ! कुली।"

स्टेशन मास्टर लालटेन लिए उसी की तरफ़ आ रहे थे। उन्होंने आते ही कहा, "साहब ! यहाँ कोई कुली नहीं मिलेगा।"

मनमोहन ने परेशान होकर कहा, "मेरा सामान कौन उठाएगा?" तभी एक व्यक्ति उनकी तरफ़ आया और बोला, "मैं ले चलता हूँ आपका सामान।"

"ठीक है ! ठीक है ! जल्दी से उठाओ। मुझे पहले ही बहुत देर हो गई है।"

अध्यापन संकेत : इस पाठ में से 'ज' ध्वनि वाले कुछ शब्दों का प्रयोग है, जैसे— आवाज़, दरवाज़ा आदि। अतः सजा-सज़ा, बाजा-दरवाज़ा, जैसे शब्द श्यामपट पर लिखकर उनका उच्चारण कराएँ तथा अंतर स्पष्ट करें। 'गंदगी', 'चंद्र' जैसे शब्दों में नू का प्रयोग होता रहा है किंतु अब वर्ग के पंचम वर्ण (ङ, ज, ण, न, म्) के स्थान पर अनुस्वार (ँ) का प्रयोग किया जाता है। जैसे— गंदगी, चंद्र आदि। संकेत, संकोच, अहंकार, यहाँ, वहाँ, पहुँच, जैसे शब्दों का शुद्ध उच्चारण करवाकर, अनुस्वार तथा अनुनासिक (ॠ, चंद्रबिंदु वाली) ध्वनियों का अंतर स्पष्ट करें। संयुक्त व्यंजन वाले शब्दों के शुद्ध उच्चारण तथा लेखन का अभ्यास कराएँ। उभारें: हमें अपना कोई भी काम करने में संकोच नहीं करना चाहिए। नम्र होना और दूसरों की सहायता करना अच्छी बात है। अपना काम स्वयं करो से संबंधित कोई अन्य घटना, संस्मरण या कहानी सुनाएँ।



स्टेशन मास्टर ने कुछ कहने को मुँह खोला ही था कि सामान उठाते उस व्यक्ति ने कुछ संकेत किया। स्टेशन मास्टर चुप रह गया।

सूटकेस सिर पर रखे वह व्यक्ति जल्दी-जल्दी स्टेशन से बाहर निकला। उसने पूछा, "क्या आप यहाँ पहली बार आए हैं?"

"हाँ। मैं यहाँ एक विशेष व्यक्ति से मिलने आया हूँ।" मनमोहन ने उत्तर दिया।



"किससे?" सूटकेस सीधा करते हुए उसने फिर पूछा।

"ईश्वरचंद्र विद्यासागर से। क्या तुम उन्हें जानते हो?"

"हाँ, मैं जानता हूँ। पास ही रहते हैं। मैं आपको वहीं ले चलता हूँ," उसने उत्तर दिया।

समीप ही एक घर में पहुँचकर उसने सूटकेस एक ओर रख दिया। कुर्सी सामने रखी और कहा, “बैठिए। कहिए क्या काम है, मैं ही ईश्वरचंद्र विद्यासागर हूँ।”

जब मनमोहन ने यह सुना तो वह ईश्वरचंद्र विद्यासागर के चरणों में गिर पड़ा।



1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) गाड़ी स्टेशन से जल्दी ही क्यों चल पड़ी?
- (ख) मनमोहन “कुली ! कुली !” क्यों चिल्ला रहा था?
- (ग) उस व्यक्ति ने स्टेशन मास्टर को चुप रहने का संकेत क्यों किया?
- (घ) मनमोहन का सामान उठाने वाला व्यक्ति कौन था?
- (ङ) मनमोहन ईश्वरचंद्र के चरणों में क्यों गिर पड़ा?

2. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

(क) ईश्वर	श्वास	विश्व	विश्वास
विद्या	विद्यालय	विद्यासागर	
व्यक्ति	व्यवहार	व्यायाम	
वक्त	रक्त	शक्ति	

3. समान अर्थवाले शब्द लिखो

रात	=	रात्रि	समीप	=
विशेष	=	शीघ्र	=
जवाब	=	संकेत	=

4. इन शब्दों के वाक्य बनाओ

समीप	लालटेन	परेशान	विशेष
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5. श्रुतलेख

ईश्वर	स्टेशन	विद्यासागर	व्यक्ति	मास्टर
लालटेन	संकेत	परेशान		

तूफान की सूचना

तूफान	सूचना	गोविंदम	शंख	भंडार
समुद्र	इडली-डोसा	वृद्ध	स्त्रियाँ	चौकन्ना
भोंपू	डोंगी	सराहना	फड़फड़ा	

गोविंदम आज बहुत प्रसन्न है। आज उसके पास अपने शंखों से खेलने का काफ़ी समय है। वह अपना भंडार खोलकर एक-एक शंख को देख रहा है। कोई शंख बड़ा है तो कोई छोटा, कोई रंगीन है तो कोई सफ़ेद। उसके पास कई तरह की सीपियों का भी भंडार है।

गोविंदम और उसकी बहिन मीनाक्षी को शंख और सीपियाँ इकट्ठा करने का बहुत शौक है। वे अपना खाली समय समुद्र के तट पर ही बिताते हैं। समुद्र तट से वे सीपियाँ तथा शंख चुनकर लाते हैं। गोविंदम के पास सभी मित्रों से अधिक सीपियाँ और शंख हैं। मीनाक्षी ने सीपियों और शंखों की कई मालाएँ भी बनाई हैं।



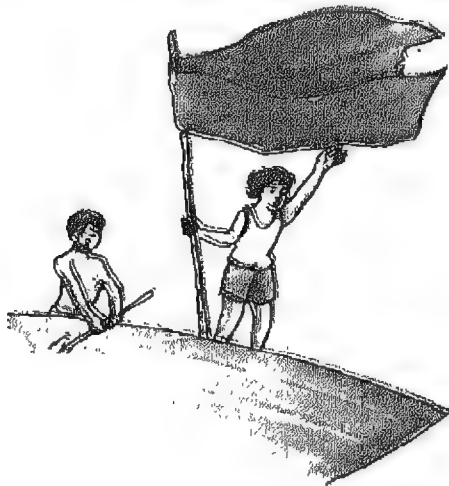
अध्यापन संकेत : काफ़ी, सफ़ेद, तूफान शब्दों में 'फ़' का प्रयोग है। अतः फल, फाटक, फली, सफल आदि शब्दों के साथ उनका उच्चारण करते हुए दोनों के उच्चारण में अंतर स्पष्ट करें। 'स्त्रियाँ' का उच्चारण कर बच्चों से बुलवाएँ। स्त्री और इस्तरी का उच्चारण-भेद समझाएँ। स्पष्ट करें कि पंचम वर्ण की आवृत्ति होने पर अनुस्वार का प्रयोग नहीं होता, जैसे— चौकन्ना, प्रसन्न, अम्मा, सम्मान, सम्मेलन आदि। ध्यान दिलाएँ : संकट का सामना समझदारी से करना चाहिए। सतर्कता और फुरती से काम करके संकट से बचा जा सकता है।

गोविंदम के पिता नाव लेकर समुद्र में मछली पकड़ने गए हैं। वे दो दिन बाद लौटने वाले हैं। जब वे आएँगे तो गोविंदम और मीनाक्षी को बहुत काम रहेगा। वे जाल में से छोटी-छोटी मछलियाँ टोकरियों में भरेंगे। गोविंदम माँ के साथ मछलियाँ बेचने बाज़ार जाएगा।

गोविंदम ने सोचा— आज समुद्र तट पर सभी साथियों को बुलाकर पिकनिक मनानी चाहिए। उसने अपनी माँ से एक छोटी टोकरी में खाना रखने को कहा। माँ ने कुछ केले, इडली और डोसा उसकी टोकरी में रख दिए। पीने के लिए कच्चे नारियल भी दे दिए। फिर माँ उसके दादा जी को खाना देने लगी। गोविंदम के दादा जी बहुत वृद्ध हैं। वे मछली पकड़ने समुद्र में नहीं जा सकते। वे घर में नारियल के रेशों से रस्सी बनाते हैं।

गोविंदम के सभी साथी अपनी-अपनी टोकरी लेकर आ गए। टोकरियों में खाना था। उन्हीं टोकरियों में वे सीप और शंख भरकर लाएँगे। बच्चे अभी कुछ ही दूर गए होंगे कि अचानक जोर से आवाज़ सुनाई दी। सभी चौकन्ने हो गए, “अरे, यह तो भोंपू की आवाज़ है।” किसी ने कहा। सभी आवाज़ की तरफ भागने लगे। घरों से स्त्रियाँ और वृद्ध भी निकलकर बाहर आ गए। एक जीप मछुआरों की बस्ती के पास आ गई थी। उसी पर बैठा एक व्यक्ति ऊँची आवाज़ में कह रहा था, “तूफ़ान आने वाला है। कोई भी समुद्र की ओर न जाए।”

गोविंदम के पिता अन्य मछुआरों के साथ समुद्र में मछली पकड़ने जा चुके थे। उन्हें गए एक घंटा बीत चुका था। अब क्या होगा? सभी स्त्रियाँ और वृद्ध चिंतित थे। कुछ लोग समुद्र की तरफ दौड़कर मछुआरों को सूचना देने चल दिए।



गोविंदम को अचानक एक उपाय सूझा। उसने मीनाक्षी से कुछ कहा। वह भागकर माँ की लाल साड़ी उठा लाई। गोविंदम साड़ी लेकर समुद्र की ओर दौड़ा। समुद्र तट पर एक डोंगी खड़ी थी। वह झट से उस पर चढ़ गया। उसने डोंगी में रखे एक लंबे बाँस पर लाल साड़ी बाँधकर बाँस खड़ा कर दिया। इतने में गोविंदम का एक मित्र दौड़ता हुआ आया और उसके साथ डोंगी में बैठ गया। अब वे डोंगी खेते हुए समुद्र में चले गए।

बहुत-से लोग तट पर खड़े चिल्ला रहे थे और मछुआरों को हाथ हिला-हिलाकर संकेत से वापस बुला रहे थे। गोविंदम की डोंगी जब कुछ दूर पहुँच गई तो दोनों मित्र ऊँची आवाज़ में चिल्लाने लगे, “लौट आओ, लौट आओ, तूफ़ान आने वाला है।”

दूर नावों पर जाते हुए मछुआरों ने कुछ शोर सुना तो वे मुड़कर देखने लगे। डोंगी पर लाल कपड़ा हवा में फड़फड़ा रहा था। मछुआरों ने लाल कपड़ा देखा तो तुरंत लौट पड़े। दोनों मित्रों ने अपनी डोंगी लौटा ली।

इतने में हवा कुछ और तेज़ हो गई। गोविंदम किनारे पर पहुँचा तो उसके लिए डोंगी को बाँधना मुश्किल हो गया। उसके दादा जी और मीनाक्षी ने आगे बढ़कर डोंगी पकड़ ली और उसे बाँध दिया। लाल साड़ी अभी भी हवा में फहरा रही थी। आधे घंटे में सारी नावें तट पर पहुँच गईं। नावें बाँधते-बाँधते हवा बहुत तेज़ हो गई। वर्षा भी होने लगी।

मछुआरों ने दोनों बच्चों की बड़ी सराहना की। गोविंदम के पिता बोले, “तुम दोनों ने बड़ी समझदारी का काम किया है। तूफ़ान बढ़ता जा रहा है, चलो अब घर चलें।”

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) गोविंदम और मीनाक्षी ने क्या-क्या जमा कर रखा था?
- (ख) उनके पिता समुद्र में क्यों गए थे?
- (ग) गोविंदम की माँ ने उसे खाने के लिए क्या-क्या दिया?
- (घ) बस्ती के लोगों को तूफ़ान की सूचना कैसे मिली?
- (ङ) गोविंदम ने बाँस पर लाल साड़ी क्यों बाँधी?
- (च) सीपियों और शंखों से क्या-क्या चीज़ें बनती हैं?

2. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

सीप	सीपियाँ	सीपियों में
मछली
डोंगी
साड़ी
रस्सी

(इसी प्रकार में, से ने, के, को आदि के साथ इन सभी शब्दों का अभ्यास वाक्य में प्रयोग करके करवाइए)

3. अर्थ लिखो

तट वृद्ध सराहना भयानक उपाय भंडार

4. पढ़ो और समझो

रंगीन शांख, ऊँची आवाज़, छोटी मछलियाँ, कच्चे नारियल, लाल साड़ी

जिन शब्दों के नीचे रेखा खिंची है, वे अपने साथ लिखे शब्द के बारे में कुछ बता रहे हैं। जैसे— रंगीन शब्द बता रहा है कि शांख कैसा है। इसी तरह ऊँची, छोटी, कच्चे, लाल— शब्द अपने साथ लिखे शब्द के बारे में कुछ बता रहे हैं।

रक्षाबंधन

रक्षाबंधन
युद्ध

पूर्णिमा
संकट

त्योहार
चित्तौड़

तिलक
कर्मवती

निराश
हुमायूँ

प्रण

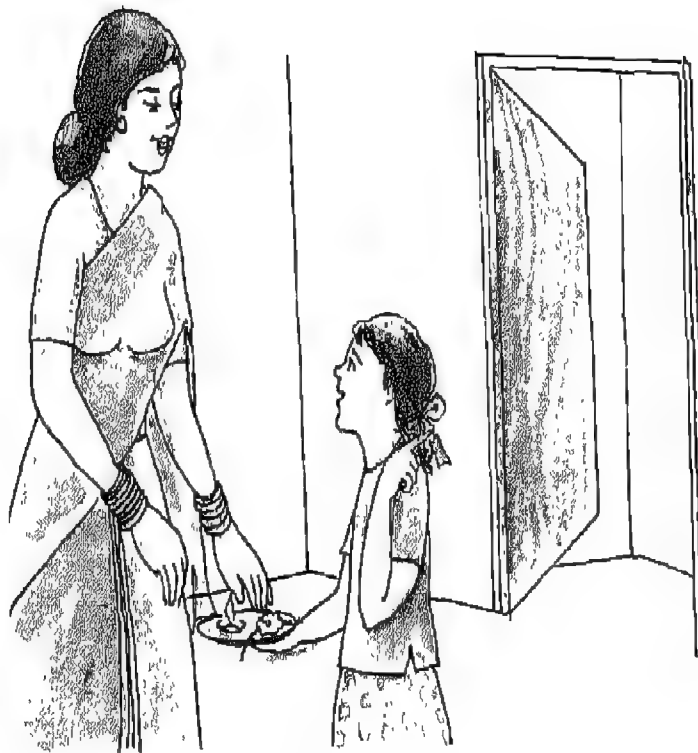
कल सावन की पूर्णिमा है। राखी का त्योहार है। उषा अपनी सहेलियों के साथ राखी लेने बाज़ार गई।

राखी की दुकान पर बड़ी भीड़ थी। दुकानदार जल्दी-जल्दी राखियाँ बेच रहा था। उषा और उसकी सहेलियों ने भी रंग-बिरंगी राखियाँ खरीदीं। फिर वे घर आ गईं।

अगले दिन उषा जल्दी उठी। नहा-धोकर उसने नए कपड़े पहने और तिलक की थाली सजाई। माँ रसोईघर में जल्दी-जल्दी खाना बना रही थीं। उन्हें भी अपने भाई को राखी बाँधने जाना था।



अध्यापन संकेत : एकवचन और बहुवचन शब्दों के अनुसार क्रिया रूपों में होने वाले परिवर्तनों को उदाहरणों द्वारा समझाएँ, जैसे— उषा ने राखी खरीदी। निशा ने राखियाँ खरीदीं। इ और र ध्वनियों के उच्चारण में अंतर को स्पष्ट करने के लिए श्यामपट पर कपड़ा, कमरा, सड़क, सरक आदि शब्द लिखें और उनका उच्चारण करवाएँ। रक्षाबंधन से पहले कक्षा में बच्चों से राखियाँ बनवाएँ। बच्चों ने रक्षाबंधन का त्योहार कैसे मनाया, समूहों में चर्चा कराएँ।



उषा के भाई आगरा से आने वाले हैं। जब कभी सड़क पर कुछ आवाज़ होती, उषा दौड़कर दरवाज़े पर जाती और सड़क की ओर देखती। भाई को न आते देख, वह निराश होकर लौट आती।

उषा ने माँ से कहा — क्या बात है, भैया अभी तक नहीं आए? आज मैं किसे राखी बाँधूंगी?

उषा को उदास देखकर माँ ने कहा, “कोई बात नहीं, उषा। पहली गाड़ी निकल गई होगी। थोड़ी देर में दूसरी गाड़ी आने वाली है। प्रभात ज़रूर आएगा।” माँ यह कह ही रही थी कि हाथ में अटैची लिए प्रभात भीतर आ गया। भाई को देखकर उषा बहुत खुश हुई।

“देखिए, आपने कितनी देर कर दी, भैया”, उषा ने प्रभात से कहा।

“क्या करता उषा, गाड़ी ही देर से आई !” माँ के पाँव छूते हुए प्रभात बोला।

“अब तुम जल्दी से नहा लो” माँ ने कहा।

नहा-धोकर प्रभात तैयार हो गया। उषा ने भाई के माथे पर तिलक लगाया, कलाई पर राखी बाँधी और फिर उसे मिठाई खिलाई। प्रभात ने बहिन को प्यार किया और उपहार दिया। उछलती-कूदती उषा सहेलियों के साथ खेलने चली गई।

1. सही वाक्य चुनो

(क) रक्षाबंधन के दिन क्या-क्या करते हैं? नीचे लिखे जो उत्तर सही हैं उनके आगे (✓) लगाओ।

[] घर सजाते हैं और दीप जलाते हैं।

[] बहिन भाई को राखी बाँधती है।

[] भाई बहिन को तिलक करता है।

[] बहिन भाई को तिलक करती है।

[] भाई बहिन को उपहार देता है।

(ख) नीचे लिखा अनुच्छेद पढ़ो और पाठ के अनुसार जो वाक्य सही नहीं है उसके नीचे रेखा खींचो।

उषा बाज़ार से रंग-बिरंगी राखियाँ ले आई। अगले दिन उसने नहा धोकर तिलक की थाली सजाई। उसकी माँ ने भी जल्दी-जल्दी खाना बना लिया। फिर वे मंदिर चली गईं। उन्हें अपने भाई को राखी बाँधनी थी।

2. बताओ

बहिन अपने भाई को राखी क्यों बाँधती है?

3. पढ़ो और समझो

रक्षाबंधन	=	रक्षा + बंधन		रेलगाड़ी	=	रेल + गाड़ी
वनवास	=		रसोईघर	=
सेनापति	=		प्रधानमंत्री	=

4. पढ़ो और लिखो

चित्तौड़	रक्षाबंधन	युद्ध	संकट	राखियाँ	प्रण
प्रभात	कर्मवती	हुमायूँ	त्योहार	सहेलियाँ	प्रार्थना

5. करो

रंग-बिरंगी राखियाँ बनाओ।

गौरैया के लिए

गौरैया संध्या	पुरखों ध्यान	परती चहचहाना	बटोरना निर्णय	उत्सुकता लहलहाना
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उसका नाम था बलराम। गाँव था पोखरी। काम था खेती। मुश्किल यह थी कि खेती करने में उसका मन नहीं लगता था। पुरखों की सारी ज़मीन परती पड़ी थी। करे तो क्या करे? भूख तो रोज़ ही लगती। इसलिए सुबह-सुबह वह जंगल की ओर चल पड़ता। जंगल में पके फल मिल जाते। जब फल नहीं मिलते तो सूखी लकड़ियाँ बटोरता। लकड़ियों को लेकर गाँव आता। यदि कोई लकड़ियों के बदले दो-चार रोटियाँ दे देता तो बलराम का पेट भर जाता। कभी-कभी वह सोचता कि अपने पुरखों की ज़मीन पर खेती ही करे। लेकिन सोचते ही उसे लगता कि परती ज़मीन पर खेती करना उसके बस की बात नहीं है।

एक दिन बलराम जंगल में लकड़ियाँ बटोर रहा था। अचानक उसका हाथ किसी कोमल चीज़ पर पड़ा। चीं-चीं की हलकी-सी आवाज़ आई। बलराम ने उत्सुकता से देखा, वह एक नन्हीं सी गौरैया थी। बलराम ने गौरैया को उठाया। वह कमज़ोर और बीमार लग रही थी। उसकी चीं-चीं की आवाज़ भी बड़ी धीमी निकल रही थी। बलराम को लगा, गौरैया उससे कुछ कह रही है। गौरैया भूखी-प्यासी होगी, ऐसा सोचकर उसने दो बूँद पानी चिड़िया की चोंच में डाला। एक जंगली फल खाने को दिया। बलराम दिनभर चिड़िया को कंधे पर बैठाए, जंगल में लकड़ियाँ चुनता रहा।

संध्या के समय वह सीधा अपने पड़ोसी के घर गया। लकड़ियाँ देकर कुछ दाना ले आया। गौरैया को दाना डाला। वह खाने लगी। बलराम बोला, "देखो चिड़िया रानी, आराम से मेरे घर रहो। जब ठीक हो जाओ तो उड़ जाना।"

अध्यापन संकेत : इस कहानी में जीव-जंतुओं से प्रेम तथा परिश्रम की महत्ता पर बल दिया गया है। चर्चा द्वारा इन मूल्यों को उभारें। कहानी की मूलकथा पर बात करने के बाद बच्चों को स्वयं कहानी पढ़ने को प्रेरित करें। जब-तब और तो वाले वाक्यों की ओर ध्यान आकर्षित करें। ऐसे कुछ और वाक्य श्यामपट पर लिखकर पढ़वाएँ। परती, पुरखों शब्दों के अर्थ स्पष्ट करें।



गौरैया बलराम के घर खुश थी। वह रोज़ बलराम के कंधे पर बैठ जंगल जाती। रास्ते में उसे मीठा गाना सुनाती। शाम को उसी के साथ लौट आती। बलराम गौरैया की खूब देखभाल करता। अब वह रोज़ लकड़ियाँ चुनकर लाता। लकड़ियाँ बेचकर अपने लिए खाना और चिड़िया के लिए दाना लाता। दोनों बातें करते। धीरे-धीरे बलराम गौरैया को चाहने लगा। उसे एक साथी मिल गया।

धीरे-धीरे गौरैया ठीक हो गई। पर बलराम चाहता था कि गौरैया उसके साथ ही रहे। गौरैया भी बलराम को छोड़कर कहीं जाना नहीं चाहती थी।

बरसात का मौसम आ गया। कई दिन तक लगातार पानी बरसता रहा। बलराम लकड़ियाँ लेने जंगल नहीं जा सका। बलराम सोचने लगा— अब गौरैया के लिए दाना कहाँ से आएगा। सोचते-सोचते उसका ध्यान अपनी ज़मीन की ओर गया।



आखिर में बलराम ने अपनी परती पड़ी ज़मीन पर ही खेती करने का निर्णय ले लिया। वह फावड़ा उठा कर चल दिया। उसने एक नज़र ज़मीन पर डाली और फिर ज़मीन खोदने में जुट गया। वह ज़मीन को खूब गहरा खोदता, कंकड़-पत्थर छाँटकर अलग कर देता। मिट्टी को बिछाता जाता। गौरैया उसके आसपास उड़ती रहती।



गाँव वालों ने जब बलराम को इतना कड़ा परिश्रम करते देखा तब वे भी उसका हाथ बँटाने आ गए। एक पड़ोसी ने खेत जोतने के लिए अपने हल-बैल दे दिए और दूसरे ने कुछ बीज।

कुछ ही समय में खेत में पौधे लहलहाने लगे। बलराम उनकी अच्छी देखभाल करता। फसल पकी तो अनाज से घर भर गया। बलराम की खुशी का ठिकाना न रहा। अनाज का ढेर गौरैया को दिखाते हुए वह बोला, "यह सब तुम्हारे लिए है। तुम्हें कहीं जाने की ज़रूरत नहीं है। अब तुम हमेशा मेरे साथ ही रहना।"

बलराम की बात सुनकर गौरैया खुशी से चहचहाने लगी।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) बलराम पहले क्या करता था?
- (ख) बलराम को गौरैया कहाँ मिली?
- (ग) बलराम को अपनी परती ज़मीन पर खेती करने का ध्यान क्यों आया?
- (घ) गाँव वालों ने बलराम की क्यों मदद की?
- (ङ) बलराम की खुशी का ठिकाना क्यों न रहा?

2. बताओ

इस कहानी का कौन-सा भाग तुम्हें सबसे अच्छा लगा? क्यों?

3. पढ़ो और समझो

(क) खोदना	=	खुदाई	(ख) पुरखे	=	दादा-परदादा
जोतना	=	जुताई	परती	=	ऐसी ज़मीन जिस पर बहुत समय से खेती न हो रही हो।
बोना	=	बुवाई			
पढ़ना	=	पढ़ाई	लहलहाना	=	हवा में झूमना
			बटोरना	=	इकट्ठा करना

4. पढ़ो, समझो और करो

इन शब्दों में से सही शब्द चुनकर खाली जगह में लिखो

पके सूखी नन्ही मीठा साफ़ परती गीला

पके	फल	गाना
.....	पानी	गौरैया
.....	ज़मीन	लकड़ियाँ

5. वाक्य बनाओ

कोमल परिश्रम निर्णय देखभाल

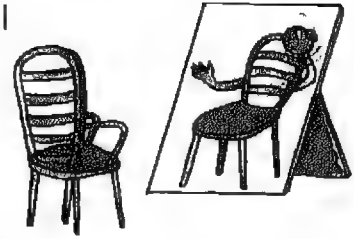
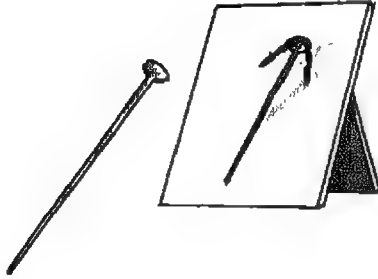
6. श्रुतलेख

गौरैया	पुरखों	उत्सुकता	खिलाऊंगा	नन्ही	संध्या
कंकड़-पत्थर	निर्णय	ध्यान	जल्दी	मुश्किल	परिश्रम

सबसे बढ़कर

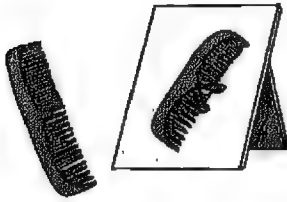
आलपीन के सिर होता पर

बाल न होता उसके एक।



कुरसी की दो बाँहें हैं पर

गेंद नहीं सकती है फेंक।

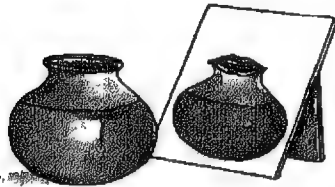
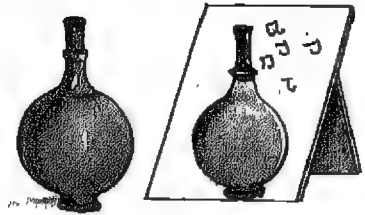


कंघी के हैं दाँत मगर वह

चबा नहीं सकती खाना।

गला सुराही का पतला है

किंतु न गा सकती गाना।



होता है मुँह बड़ा घड़े का

पर वह बोल नहीं सकता।

अध्यापन संकेत : इस कविता में मनुष्य के शरीर के अंगों और उनके कार्यों के संबंध के आधार पर आठ अलग-अलग वस्तुओं के अंगों के बारे में कौतूहल उत्पन्न किया गया है। बच्चों को बताएँ — सिर, बाँह, दाँत, गला, मुँह, पैर, जीभ तथा आँख मानव शरीर के कुछ मुख्य अंग हैं। इनके अलग-अलग कार्य हैं। आलपीन, कुरसी, कंघी, सुराही, घड़ा, पलंग, जूते तथा नारियल के भी क्रमशः मानव शरीर के अंगों के नाम वाले अंग हैं किंतु उनसे वे काम नहीं कर पाते जो मनुष्य के अंग करते हैं।

चार पैर पलंग के होते पर
वह डोल नहीं सकता ।

जूते के है जीभ मगर वह
स्वाद नहीं चख सकता है ।

आँखें होते हुए नारियल
देख नहीं कुछ सकता है ।

है मनुष्य के पास सभी कुछ
ले सकता है सबसे काम
इसीलिए दुनिया में सबसे
बढ़कर है उसका ही नाम ।

— रमापति शुक्ल

1. इन पंक्तियों को पूरा करो

(क) कंघी के हैं दाँत मगर वह
..... ।

(ख) गला सुराही का पतला है
..... ।

(ग) चार पैर पलंग के होते पर
..... ।

2. बताओ

हम इनसे क्या-क्या काम लेते हैं—
कंघी, कुरसी, पलंग, सुराही, जूता, आलपीन

3. करो

- (क) पत्रिकाओं से कुछ मनपसंद कविताएँ चुनकर कक्षा में सुनाओ और उन्हें लिखकर अपनी एक कविता-पुस्तिका बनाओ ।
(ख) इस कविता को याद करो ।

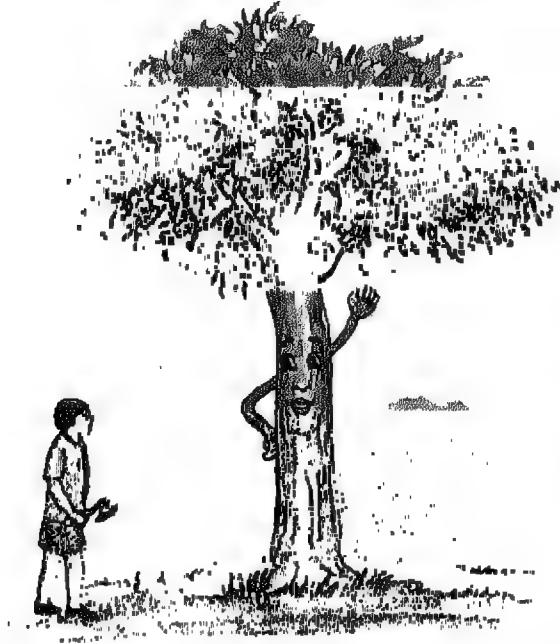
कुल्हाड़ी
शुद्ध

कराहना
निबोरी

आनंद
फोड़े-फुंसियाँ

संदूक

रमेश को एक दिन एक कुल्हाड़ी मिल गई। वह कुल्हाड़ी लेकर बाहर निकला। सामने नीम का एक पेड़ था। रमेश उस पेड़ के तने को कुल्हाड़ी से काटने ही लगा था कि कहीं से आवाज़ आई। उसे बड़ा आश्चर्य हुआ क्योंकि आसपास कोई न था। वह ध्यान से सुनने लगा। उसे लगा कि पेड़ उससे कुछ कह रहा है, "रमेश, तुम मुझे क्यों काट रहे हो? क्या तुम नहीं जानते कि मैं तुम्हारे कितने काम आता हूँ?"



रमेश, मेरी पत्तियों को देखो। ये पत्तियाँ इतनी घनी हैं कि सूर्य की किरणें धरती तक नहीं पहुँच पातीं और मेरे नीचे सदा छाया बनी रहती है। तुम भी तो अपने मित्रों के साथ मेरी छाया में बैठते और खेलते हो। तुम्हें मेरे नीचे बैठकर आनंद आता है न ! तुम्हारी ही तरह दूसरे लोग और पशु भी मेरी छाया में बैठकर आराम करते हैं। इतना ही नहीं, मेरी पत्तियों पर जब सूर्य की किरणें पड़ती हैं तब ये हवा को शुद्ध कर देती हैं।

तुमने कभी किसी को गरम कपड़ों के संदूक में मेरी सूखी पत्तियाँ रखते हुए देखा है? क्या तुम

अध्यापन संकेत : यह पाठ आत्मकथा शैली में लिखा गया है। यहाँ नीम स्वयं अपने बारे में कह रहा है। आसपास नीम का पेड़ हो तो बच्चों को दिखाएँ और उसके विभिन्न भागों से परिचित कराएँ। नीम की दातुन उपयोग में लाने के लिए प्रोत्साहित करें— नीम की तरह अन्य पेड़ों के भी अपने-अपने लाभ हैं। पर्यावरण से जोड़ते हुए पेड़ों के बारे में सामान्य चर्चा करें। पेड़ों से लाभ का चित्रमय चार्ट बनवाएँ।

जानते हो, वे ऐसा क्यों करते हैं? ऐसा करने से गरम कपड़ों में कीड़ा नहीं लगता। मैं किसान के अनाज की भी रक्षा करता हूँ। अनाज में मेरी सूखी पत्तियाँ रख देने से उनमें कीड़ा नहीं लगता। मेरी सूखी पत्तियों को जलाकर धुआँ कर दिया जाए तो मच्छर भाग जाते हैं।



मुझ पर फूल और फल भी लगते हैं। मेरे फल को निबौरी कहते हैं। मेरे फूल और निबौरी भी बहुत काम की चीज़ें हैं। इन्हें खाने से पेट की बीमारियाँ दूर हो जाती हैं। निबौरी की गुठली से जो तेल निकलता है, उससे साबुन बनाते हैं। निबौरी की गुठली का तेल और इस तेल से बना 'साबुन' फोड़े-फुंसियों को ठीक कर देता है। बच्चों को फुंसियाँ बहुत तंग करती हैं। अगर फुंसियों पर मेरी छाल घिसकर लगा दो तो ये फुंसियाँ ठीक हो जाएँगी।

क्या तुमने कभी मेरी दातुन से दाँत साफ़ किए हैं? यह कड़वी तो ज़रूर होती है, पर दाँतों के लिए बहुत अच्छी होती है। इससे दाँत मज़बूत होते हैं और उनमें कीड़ा भी नहीं लगता।

बुखार में तुम मेरी जड़ को पानी में उबालकर पी लो तो तुम्हारा बुखार दूर हो जाएगा।

देखा तुमने। मैं तुम्हारे कितने काम आता हूँ। मेरे सभी भाग किसी न किसी काम में लाए जाते हैं। अब तो तुम जान गए न कि मैं बीमारियों को भगाने वाला पेड़ हूँ। मैं सब जगह आसानी से लगाया भी जा सकता हूँ। इसीलिए क्या गाँव, क्या शहर — सब जगह लोग मुझे लगाते हैं और मेरी ठंडी छाया में बैठकर सुखी होते हैं।

नीम की ये बातें सुनकर रमेश को बड़ा आश्चर्य हुआ। वह सोचने लगा — कितना अच्छा है यह नीम का पेड़ और मैं इसे काट रहा था।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) नीम की पत्तियाँ किस-किस काम आती हैं?
- (ख) नीम के तेल से क्या लाभ हैं?
- (ग) नीम के पेड़ को बीमारियाँ भगानेवाला पेड़ क्यों कहते हैं?
- (घ) नीम की दातुन क्यों करनी चाहिए?

2. वाक्य पूरे करो

- (क) नीम की पत्तियाँ हवा को कर देती हैं।
(ख) घनी पत्तियों से नीम के नीचे सदा रहती है।
(ग) नीम की सूखी पत्तियाँ रखने से कपड़ों में नहीं लगता।
(घ) नीम की पत्तियों को जलाकर धुआँ करने से भाग जाते हैं।
(ङ) नीम की करने से दाँत साफ़ रहते हैं।
(च) नीम के साबुन से नहाने से ठीक हो जाते हैं।

3. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

(क)	नाली	=	नालियाँ	(ख)	भरना	=	भरा
	बूटी	=		फैलना	=
	निबौरी	=		पीसना	=
	गुठली	=		धिसना	=
	फुंसी	=		फेंकना	=

4. पढ़ो और लिखो

निबौरी	धुआँ	पत्तियाँ	आनंद
रक्षा	फुंसियाँ	सूर्य	कुल्हाड़ी
लकड़ियाँ	आश्चर्य	बीमारियाँ	मच्छर

5. करो

- (क) हमें पेड़ नहीं काटने चाहिए — विषय पर कक्षा में चर्चा करो।
(ख) अपने घर के आसपास नीम का एक पेड़ लगाओ।

बीरबल की खिचड़ी

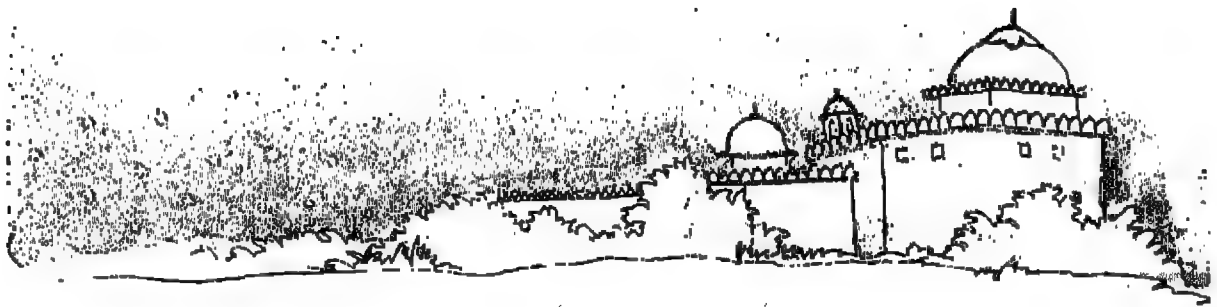
बादशाह	विद्वान	चतुराई	प्रसिद्ध	चाव
बाह्मण	नम्रता	उपस्थित	सम्मान	राजमहल

अकबर के दरबार में अनेक विद्वान थे। बीरबल उन्हीं में से एक थे। वे अपनी चतुराई के लिए बड़े प्रसिद्ध थे। अपनी चतुराई से वे बादशाह को भी हरा देते थे। अकबर और बीरबल के बारे में अनेक किस्से प्रसिद्ध हैं। लोग उन्हें बड़े चाव से सुनते-सुनाते हैं।



एक बार की बात है। अकबर किसी गाँव से होकर जा रहे थे। सरदी के दिन थे। गाँव के लोग आग जलाकर, उसके चारों ओर बैठे बातें कर रहे थे। जब बादशाह अपने साथियों के साथ वहाँ पहुँचे तो ब्रह्मदत्त नाम का एक ब्राह्मण कह रहा था कि मैं यमुना के पानी में रात भर खड़ा रह सकता हूँ।

अध्यापन संकेत : पाई हटाकर बनने वाले संयुक्त व्यंजनों के लिखित रूप पर विशेष ध्यान दिलाएँ, जैसे— विश्वास, आश्चर्य, उपस्थित आदि। विद्वान, प्रसिद्ध जैसे शब्दों को पढ़वाएँ तथा लिखवाएँ। संयुक्त व्यंजन बनाते समय हलन्त () की ओर ध्यान दिलाएँ। बीरबल की चतुराई की ओर संकेत करते हुए, कुछ और किस्से बच्चों को विभिन्न समूहों में पढ़ने को कहें। इन विराम चिह्नों— पूर्णविराम, प्रश्नवाचक, विस्मयबोधक तथा उद्धरण चिह्न (" ") का प्रयोग सिखाएँ। कुछ चुटकुले चार्ट पर लिखवाकर फ्लैटनल बोर्ड पर लगवाएँ।



अकबर को इस बात पर विश्वास नहीं हुआ। उन्होंने ब्रह्मदत्त से कहा कि यदि तुम सारी रात पानी में खड़े रहो तो मैं तुम्हें थैलीभर मोहरें इनाम में दूँगा। ब्रह्मदत्त मान गया।

अगली रात ब्रह्मदत्त यमुना के ठंडे जल में पूरे समय खड़ा रहा। प्रातः वह बादशाह के दरबार में आया। बादशाह ने आश्चर्य से पूछा, “तुम इतनी सरदी में सारी रात पानी में कैसे खड़े रहे?”

ब्रह्मदत्त ने नम्रता से उत्तर दिया, “महाराज, आपके राजमहल से दीपक का प्रकाश आ रहा था। मैं उसे देखते हुए सारी रात पानी में खड़ा रहा।”

बादशाह ने कहा, “तो तुम मेरे दीपक की गरमी के कारण ही सरदी से बच सके। तुम्हें कोई इनाम नहीं दिया जाएगा।”

ब्रह्मदत्त बहुत दुखी हुआ। वह उदास होकर चला गया। उस समय बीरबल भी दरबार में उपस्थित थे। उन्होंने सोचा — इस व्यक्ति की सहायता करनी चाहिए।

दूसरे दिन बीरबल दरबार में नहीं आए। अकबर को चिंता हुई कि कहीं बीरबल बीमार तो नहीं पड़ गए। उन्होंने बीरबल को बुला भेजा। बीरबल ने कहलवाया कि मैं खिचड़ी पका रहा हूँ, पक जाने पर दरबार में हाज़िर हो जाऊँगा।

अगले दिन बीरबल को फिर दरबार में न देखकर बादशाह ने कुछ सोचा। फिर वे बोले, “चलो, स्वयं ही जाकर देखें कि बीरबल कैसी खिचड़ी पका रहा है।”

जब बादशाह बीरबल के यहाँ पहुँचे तो उन्होंने देखा कि एक लंबे बाँस के ऊपरी सिरे पर एक हाँडी लटकी हुई है। हाँडी के काफ़ी नीचे ज़मीन पर बहुत थोड़ी-सी आग जल रही है। बादशाह ने हैरानी से पूछा, “बीरबल ! भला यह खिचड़ी कैसे पक सकती है? हाँडी तो आग से बहुत दूर है।”

बीरबल ने उत्तर दिया, “हुज़ूर अगर कोई राजमहल के दीपक की गरमी के सहारे सारी रात ठंडे पानी में खड़ा रह सकता है तो इस आग से मेरी खिचड़ी क्यों नहीं पक सकती?”

अकबर को बात समझ में आ गई। उन्होंने दूसरे दिन ब्रह्मदत्त को दरबार में बुलाया और बड़े सम्मान के साथ उसे मोहरों की थैली भेंट की।



1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) बीरबल कौन थे?
- (ख) बीरबल में क्या-क्या गुण थे?
- (ग) अकबर ने ब्रह्मदत्त को इनाम न देने का क्या कारण बताया?
- (घ) ब्रह्मदत्त उदास क्यों हुआ?
- (ङ) बीरबल ने हाँडी आग से इतनी दूर क्यों लटका रखी थी?

2. सही शब्द चुनकर वाक्य पूरे करो

चतुराई विश्वास दीपक प्रकाश सम्मान

- (क) अँधेरा हो गया जला दो।
- (ख) अकबर को ब्रह्मदत्त की बात पर नहीं हुआ।
- (ग) बीरबल की से अकबर खुश हुए।
- (घ) बल्ब जलाते ही सारे कमरे में हो गया।
- (ङ) हमें बड़ों का करना चाहिए।

3. पढ़ो और लिखो

प्रातः	प्रातःकाल	विद्वान्	द्वार	ब्रह्मा	ब्राह्मण
निश्चित	आश्चर्य	प्रसिद्ध	बुद्धिमान	हिम्मत	सम्मान

4. समान अर्थवाले शब्द लिखो

प्रकाश	रोशनी	उपस्थित
दीपक	पुरस्कार
आश्चर्य	उत्तर

5. विपरीत अर्थवाले शब्द लिखो

उदास	×	खुश	एक	×	अनेक
प्रकाश	×	शुद्ध	×
दुखी	×	चतुर	×

6. करो

बीरबल और तेनालीराम की कोई कहानी या चुटकुला कक्षा में सुनाओ।

फूलों की घाटी में



चलो-चलो उड़ चलें आज हम
फूलों की उस घाटी में
जहाँ फूल ही फूल खिले हों
घाटी की उस माटी में।

देवलोक से परियाँ आतीं
वहाँ देखने फुलवारी
रंग-बिरंगे फूल खिले हैं
महके केसर की क्यारी।

अध्यापन संकेत : लय और स्वर के उतार-चढ़ाव के साथ कविता को दो-तीन बार सुनाएँ। बच्चे सुनें और मिलकर दोहराएँ। रंग-बिरंगे फूल, झूमती कलियाँ, उन पर मँडराती तितलियाँ, धीरों की गुनगुन, चारों ओर फैली हरियाली-प्रकृति के ऐसे सुंदर दृश्य बच्चों की कल्पना में बातचीत द्वारा उभारें। भाव स्पष्ट करें— मंद पवन बुलराए जब-जब, झूम उठें कलियाँ सारी— हवा धीरे-धीरे बह रही है। हवा के झोंकों से हिलती हुई कलियाँ झूमती-सी लगती हैं। बारह मास जहाँ पर हर दिन बासंती मँडराती है— जहाँ हर दिन बसंत जैसी शोभा फैली रहती है। बाणी से मधुर बरसाएँ— मीठे वचन बोलें।

मंद पवन दुलराए जब-जब
झूम उठें कलियाँ सारी
थिरक-थिरक कर तितली झूमे
फूलों की शोभा न्यारी।

भीनी खुशबू से खुश होकर
बुलबुल गीत सुनाती है
बारह मास जहाँ पर हर दिन
बासंती मंडराती है।

उसी जगह भौरों के संग हम
फूल-फूल पर इठलाएँ
गुनगुन-गुनगुन गीत सुनाकर
वाणी से मधु बरसाएँ।

— शोभनाथ लाल

1. बताओ

- (क) परियाँ फूलों की घाटी में क्यों आती हैं?
(ख) फूलों की घाटी में ये क्या-क्या करते हैं— मंद पवन, बुलबुल, बासंती ।

2. करो

इस कविता को याद करो और बालसभा में सुनाओ।

एडीसन

एडीसन
कारीगर

प्रकाश
प्रयोग

बल्ब
मग्न

बुद्धिमान
उपयोग

महान
उत्साह

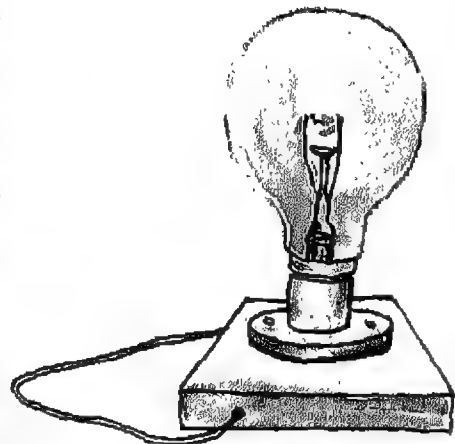


जैसे ही बटन दबाओ, बल्ब जल उठता है और कमरा प्रकाश से जगमगा उठता है। क्या तुमने कभी सोचा है कि बिजली का बल्ब किसने बनाया ?

बिजली का बल्ब बनाने वाले व्यक्ति का नाम था— एडीसन। एडीसन का पूरा नाम थामस एलवा एडीसन था। वह अमरीका का रहने वाला था। एडीसन बचपन से ही कुछ न कुछ सोचता रहता। कक्षा में बैठा हुआ भी वह अपने ही विचारों में खोया रहता।

पाठशाला से लौटते ही थामस अपने कमरे में घुस जाता। वह छोटी-छोटी शीशियों में कुछ उलटता-पलटता और बड़े ध्यान से उनको देखता। वह अपने काम में इतना मग्न रहता कि खाना-पीना भी भूल जाता। माँ उसे खाने के लिए बुलातीं पर वह कमरे से बाहर न निकलता। माँ खाना कमरे में रख देतीं तो खाना वैसे ही पड़ा रहता।

थामस के अध्यापक उसे साधारण बालक समझते लेकिन उसकी माँ उसे बहुत बुद्धिमान समझती थीं। वे अपने

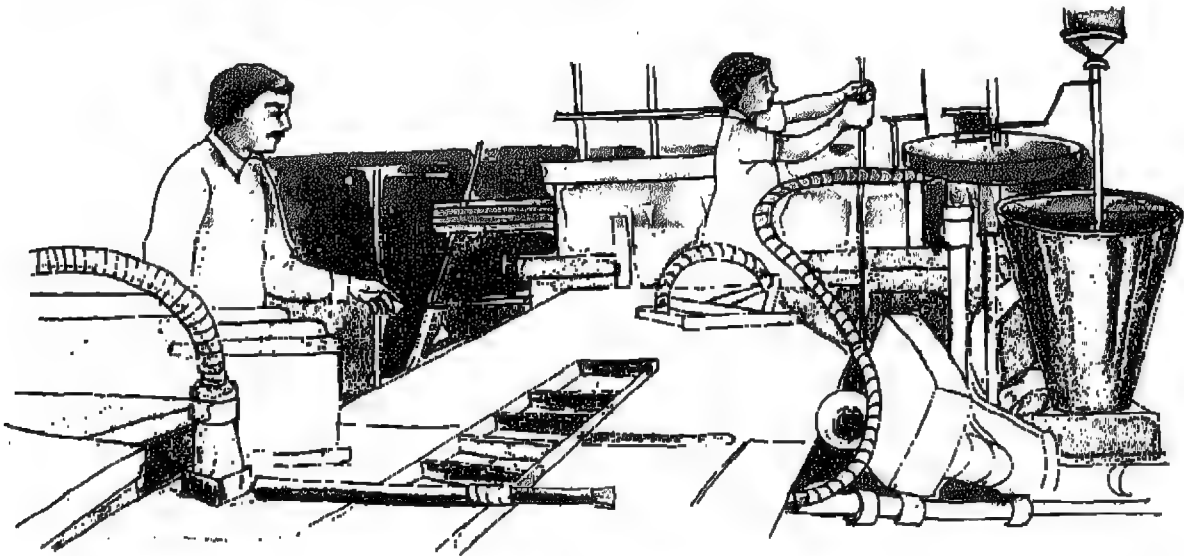


अध्यापन संकेत : यह पाठ एडीसन नामक एक वैज्ञानिक के बारे में है जिसने अपनी नई-नई खोजों से हमारे दैनिक जीवन को सुविधाजनक बनाया है। उनके जीवन की घटनाओं को सुनाते हुए बच्चों में परिश्रम की भावना तथा वैज्ञानिक दृष्टिकोण का विकास करें। प्रमुख भारतीय वैज्ञानिक और उनकी प्रमुख खोजों के बारे में बताएँ। उनके चित्र एकत्र कर चार्ट पर लगवाएँ।

पड़ोसियों से कहतीं कि बड़ा होकर थामस जरूर महान व्यक्ति बनेगा। थामस को माँ की बातों से बड़ा उत्साह मिलता और वह हर समय अपने काम में लगा रहता।

बारह वर्ष का होने पर थामस ने अखबार बेचने का काम शुरू कर दिया। वह रेलगाड़ी में अखबार बेचता और बाकी समय अपनी खोजों में लगा रहता। वह जो भी पैसा कमाता, उसे खोज के काम में लगा देता।

एक बार थामस ने एक ऐसी फैक्टरी में नौकरी कर ली जिसमें कई मशीनें लगी थीं। एक दिन एक मशीन खराब हो गई। कोई भी कारीगर उस मशीन को ठीक न कर सका। पास ही थामस खड़ा था। उसने अपने मालिक से आज्ञा लेकर मशीन को देखा। बस फिर क्या था ! थामस को अपना मनपसंद काम मिल गया। वह मशीन ठीक करने लग गया। कुछ ही घंटों में परिश्रम से मशीन ठीक हो गई। फिर तो मालिक ने उसे मशीनें ठीक करने का काम सौंप दिया।



थामस एडीसन अब अनेक मशीनों पर प्रयोग करने लगा। उसने प्रतिदिन के उपयोग में आने वाली कई वस्तुओं की खोज की। उनमें से एक है बल्ब। इससे पहले बिजली की खोज तो हो चुकी थी किंतु उसका प्रयोग रोशनी के लिए नहीं होता था। बिजली का पंखा भी सबसे पहले एडीसन ने ही बनाया।

एडीसन ने ग्रामोफोन भी बनाया। आज भी तुम बापू और चाचा नेहरु की आवाज़ ग्रामोफोन पर सुन सकते हो। पहले सिनेमा में केवल चलती-फिरती तस्वीरें ही होती थीं। वे बोलती नहीं थीं। उनमें आवाज़ भरी एडीसन ने। बेतार का तार, टाइपराइटर और टेलीफोन को भी उन्होंने अधिक उपयोगी बनाया।

थामस एडीसन तो अब इस दुनिया में नहीं हैं परंतु उनके द्वारा बनाया गया बल्ब आज भी चारों ओर रोशनी फैला रहा है। बटन दबाओ और रोशनी ही रोशनी !

1. सही वाक्य चुनो

जो वाक्य थामस एडीसन के बारे में ठीक है, उसके आगे (✓) लगाओ।

- [] एडीसन बहुत परिश्रमी था।
- [] एडीसन बहुत पढ़ा-लिखा व्यक्ति था।
- [] एडीसन दिनभर खोज के कामों में लगा रहता था।
- [] एडीसन ने बल्ब और ग्रामोफोन की खोज की।
- [] एडीसन महान व्यक्ति न बन सका।
- [] एडीसन ने कई तरह की मशीनें बनाईं।

2. विपरीत अर्थवाले शब्द लिखकर वाक्य पूरे करो

नीचे लिखे वाक्यों को पढ़ो। जिस शब्द के नीचे रेखा खींची है उसके विपरीत अर्थवाले शब्द को खाली जगह में लिखो। अब वाक्य को फिर से पढ़ो।

- (क) बल्ब जलाते ही प्रकाश हो जाता है और दूर हो जाता है।
- (ख) रामू बहुत परिश्रमी है पर उसका भाई बहुत है।
- (ग) सलीम ने पाँच प्रश्न ठीक किए और दो

3. श्रुतलेख

महान	परिश्रम	कारीगर	प्रकाश	बुद्धिमान	अध्यापक
बल्ब	प्रयोग	प्रतिदिन	संसार	उपयोग	मग्न

4. पढ़ो और समझो

अध्यापक	अध्यापिका	मालिक	मालकिन
लेखक	लेखिका	पड़ोसी	पड़ोसिन

5. करो

पुस्तकालय से वैज्ञानिकों के जीवन से संबंधित पुस्तकें लेकर पढ़ो। किसी वैज्ञानिक के बचपन की कोई घटना कक्षा में सुनाओ।

खेल दिवस

माइक निर्णय	ट्रक चकित	रेखाएँ करतब	लुढ़कते-लुढ़कते
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विद्यालय में कई दिनों से खेल दिवस की तैयारियाँ चल रही हैं। बच्चों ने मिलजुल कर पूरे मैदान की सफाई की है। मैदान में जगह-जगह चूने से सफेद रेखाएँ बनाई गई हैं।

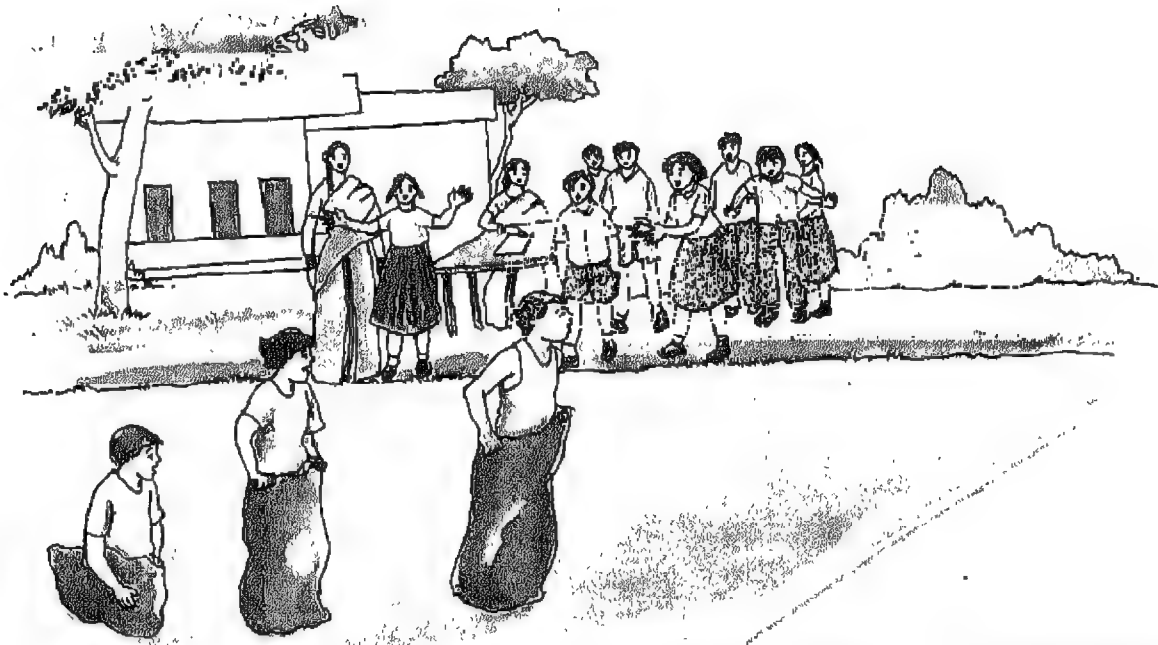
आज बच्चे बिना बस्ता लिए ही स्कूल आए हैं। सभी के चेहरे खिले हुए हैं। आज खेल दिवस है। दिनभर खेल-कूद ही होंगे।

मुख्य अध्यापिका ने माइक पर खेल प्रारंभ होने की सूचना दी। खेल अध्यापिका ने सीटी बजाई। मेंढक दौड़ होने वाली थी। इसमें भाग लेने वाले बच्चे सामने आ गए। बच्चों को मेंढक की तरह बैठकर फुदकते हुए दौड़ना था। जब सब तैयार हो गए, तब अध्यापिका ने दौड़ शुरू करने का इशारा किया। बच्चे फुदक-फुदक कर दौड़ने लगे। दुबली-पतली नमिता सबसे आगे थी। गोलू दौड़ते-दौड़ते लुढ़क गया फिर उठा और खिलखिला कर हँस पड़ा।

अब बारी थी— लंगड़ी दौड़ की। बच्चों को एक पैर से ही दौड़ना था। दौड़ने वाले सभी बच्चे कतार में खड़े हो गए। अध्यापिका ने सीटी बजाई। दौड़ शुरू हुई। कुछ दूर पहुँचने के बाद रीता ने अपना दूसरा पैर भी ज़मीन पर रख दिया। वह दौड़ से बाहर हो गई। अभिनव तेज़ी से दौड़ रहा था। वह सबसे आगे निकल गया।

रबड़ की गेंद दूर तक फेंकने का खेल भी हुआ। बारी-बारी से गोल घरे में खड़े होकर बच्चे गेंद फेंकते। अध्यापिका देख रही थीं कि कौन गेंद को अधिक दूर तक फेंकता है। जब गोलू की बारी आई,

अध्यापन संकेत : वर्णन शैली में लिखे गए इस पाठ में हास्य का पुट है। बच्चों को इसे स्वयं पढ़कर आनंद लेने दें। बीच-बीच में प्रश्न पूछकर बच्चों का ध्यान पाठ में बनाए रखें। ट्र, ड्र जब र के साथ संयुक्त होते हैं तो लिखते समय उन्हें ट्र, ड्र के रूप में लिखते हैं, जैसे— ट्रक, ड्रम, ड्रामा, राष्ट्र आदि शब्द। घर के अंदर और बाहर मैदान में खेले जाने वाले खेलों पर चर्चा करें। खेलते समय खेल के नियमों का पालन करना चाहिए। खेलों को खेल-भावना से खेलना चाहिए— इन बातों पर बल दें।



उसने खूब ताकत लगाकर गेंद को फेंका। गेंद सड़क पर जा रहे ट्रक की छत पर जा गिरी। वह ट्रक के साथ ही चली गई। बच्चे गोलू का करतब देखकर बहुत खुश हुए और ज़ोर-ज़ोर से तालियाँ पीटने लगे।

बोरा दौड़ में भाग लेने वाले बच्चे बोरा हाथ में लिए थे। अध्यापिका बारी-बारी से बच्चों को पास बुलातीं, बोरा पहनाकर बोरे के दोनों सिरे उन्हें पकड़ा देतीं। निखिल भी बोरा लेकर आया था। यह देखकर सभी बच्चे चकित थे। सदा पढ़ाई में जुटा रहने वाला निखिल भी आज खेल के मैदान में था।

दौड़ शुरू हुई। बोरे पहने हुए बच्चे उछलते, फुदकते, कूदते हुए आगे बढ़ने लगे। दौड़ते-दौड़ते गौरव अचानक गिर गया। उसने खड़ा होने की कोशिश की। वह खड़ा नहीं हो पाया। वह लुढ़कते-लुढ़कते ही आगे बढ़ने लगा। दौड़ देखने वाले बच्चे हँस-हँसकर तालियाँ बजाने लगे।

अब बारी थी टाफ़ी दौड़ की। इस दौड़ में हिस्सा लेने वाले बच्चों के हाथ पीछे करके बाँध दिए गए।



सामने कुछ दूर ऊँचाई पर बँधी रस्सी में टाफ़ियाँ लटक रही थीं। सीटी बजते ही बच्चों को दौड़कर टाफ़ियों तक पहुँचना था। उछलकर एक टाफ़ी मुँह में दबानी थी। फिर दौड़ते हुए लौटना था।

सीटी बजी। बच्चे दौड़ने लगे। धीरज सबसे लंबा था। वह पहले पहुँच गया। उसने उछलकर एक टाफ़ी मुँह में दबाई और मुड़ा। मुड़ते ही विजय से टकरा गया। दोनों गिर पड़े। देखने वाले बच्चे खिलखिला कर हँसने लगे। इस बीच सुलभा ने उछलकर टाफ़ी दाँतों से पकड़ी और तेज़ी से दौड़ने लगी। कुछ और बच्चे भी उसके पीछे आ रहे थे।

अब बारी थी— रस्सा खींच की। इस खेल के लिए दो दल मैदान में थे। एक ओर भीम दल था, दूसरी ओर शक्ति दल। अध्यापिका ने सबको समझाते हुए कहा, “जो दल रस्से को खींचता हुआ अपने पाले में ले जाएगा, वह विजयी होगा।” दोनों दलों के खिलाड़ियों ने मज़बूती से रस्सा पकड़ लिया। सीटी बजते ही रस्सा खींचना शुरू हो गया। दोनों दल बराबरी के थे। देखने वाले बच्चे चिल्ला रहे थे— ज़ोर लगाकर हैया, खींचो मेरे भैया।



कभी लगता कि रस्सा इस पाले में आएगा तो कभी दूसरे पाले में जाता लगता। कई मिनट तक दोनों दल ज़ोर लगाते रहे पर निर्णय नहीं हो पाया। अध्यापिका ने सीटी बजाते हुए कहा, “खेल बराबरी पर समाप्त हुआ।”

इसके बाद अध्यापिका ने सीटी बजाई। सब बच्चे उनके आसपास इकट्ठे हो गए।

पहले और दूसरे स्थान पर आने वाले बच्चों को पुस्तकें और खिलौने दिए गए। सभी बच्चों को फल बाँटे गए। बच्चे खुशी-खुशी अपने घर चल दिए।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) खेल दिवस के दिन बच्चे क्यों प्रसन्न थे?
- (ख) खेल दिवस के लिए क्या-क्या तैयारियाँ की गईं?
- (ग) रीता को दौड़ से बाहर क्यों कर दिया गया?
- (घ) रस्सा खींच में कौन-सा दल जीता?
- (ङ) निखिल को बोरा लिए देखकर बच्चे क्यों हैरान हुए?

2. वाक्य पूरे करो

है हैं थी थीं

- (क) लड़के मैदान में खेल रहे
- (ख) रमा कल मेला देखने गई
- (ग) चिड़ियाँ दाना चुग रही
- (घ) रेलगाड़ी तेज़ी से भाग रही
- (ङ) रीना पुस्तक पढ़ रही
- (च) सभी सहेलियाँ कल बाज़ार गई

3. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

संकेत	=	इशारा	ट् + ट	ट्ट	पट्टी
दिवस	=	ड् + ड	ड्ड	हड्डी
पंक्ति	=	ट् + ठ	ट्ठ	चिट्ठी
चकित	=	ट् + र	ट्र	राष्ट्र
निर्णय	=	ड् + र	ड्र	ड्रामा

4. लिखो

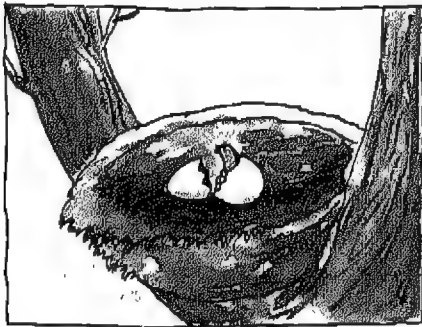
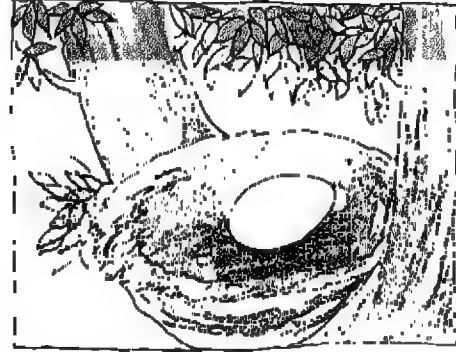
तुम कौन-सा खेल खेलना पसंद करते हो — उसके बारे में लिखो।

5. करो

किसी खिलाड़ी का चित्र एलबम में लगाओ।

चिड़िया का गीत

सबसे पहले मेरे घर का
अंडे जैसा था आकार
तब मैं यही समझती थी बस
इतना-सा ही है संसार।



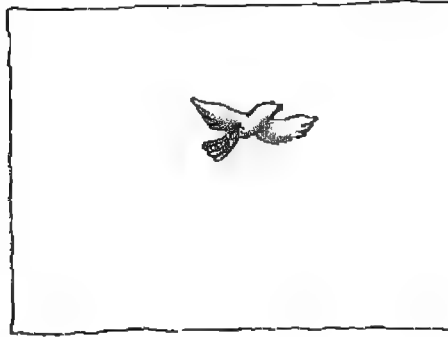
फिर मेरा घर बना घोंसला
सूखे तिनकों से तैयार
तब मैं यही समझती थी बस
इतना-सा ही है संसार।

फिर मैं निकल गई शाखों पर
हरी-भरी थीं जो सुकुमार
तब मैं यही समझती थी बस
इतना-सा ही है संसार।



अध्यापन संकेत : यहाँ चिड़िया का जन्म (अंडे के रूप में) से लेकर बड़े होने तक की पूरी प्रक्रिया दी गई है। बड़े होने के साथ-साथ हमारे सोचने का ढंग बदलता जाता है। जानकारी और आसपास की दुनिया का दायरा भी बड़ा होता जाता है। इस बात को बच्चों के जीवन से जोड़ें। परिवार से विद्यालय और फिर आगे बढ़ने की बात समझाते हुए, उन्हें कार्यक्षेत्र में सक्रिय होने को प्रोत्साहित करें। पक्षियों की अन्य कविताएँ सुनें और सुनाएँ। उन्हें कविता-संग्रह बनाने को कहें।

आखिर जब मैं आसमान में
उड़ी दूर तक पंख पसार
तभी समझ में मेरी आया
बहुत बड़ा है यह संसार।



— निरंकार देव 'सेवक'

1. करो

- (क) अपनी कविता-पुस्तिका में चिड़ियों के बारे में कुछ और कविताएँ इकट्ठी करके लगाओ। उन्हें कक्षा में सुनाओ।
- (ख) चिड़िया और उसके बच्चों का चित्र बनाओ।

चतुर गीदड़

(पहला दृश्य)

(स्थान : तालाब का किनारा)

मगरमच्छ : (तालाब की ओर देखते हुए, अपने आप से) तालाब की सारी मछलियाँ तो मैं धीरे-धीरे चट कर गया। अब क्या खाऊँ? कई दिन से खाने को कुछ भी नहीं मिला। मुझे बहुत भूख लगी है। आज वह गीदड़ भी तालाब पर पानी पीने नहीं आया।

(कछुए का प्रवेश)

कछुआ : कहो भाई मगरमच्छ, क्या है? सब ठीक तो है?
इतने उदास क्यों हो?



अध्यापन संकेत : यह पाठ नाट्य विधा के रूप में है। इसके पात्रों के बारे में बातचीत करें। इसके संवादों को उचित हाव-भाव तथा उतार-चढ़ाव के साथ नाटकीय रूप में पढ़वाएँ। बच्चों को घटनाओं के क्रम के अनुसार एक-एक अंश कहानी के रूप में सुनाने को कहें। पाठ में आए मुहावरों का सही संदर्भ में प्रयोग कर अर्थ स्पष्ट करें। प्रत्येक पात्र के बारे में अलग-अलग चर्चा कर बच्चों की प्रतिक्रिया जानें कि कौन कैसा था। बच्चों से मुखौटे बनवाएँ और उन्हें पहनकर नाटक का अभिनय करने को कहें।

- मगरमच्छ : क्या बताऊँ मित्र। भूख के मारे मेरे प्राण निकल रहे हैं।
- कछुआ : क्यों, क्या आज खाने के लिए मछलियाँ नहीं मिलीं?
- मगरमच्छ : मछलियाँ तो कब की समाप्त हो चुकीं। सोचा था कि गीदड़ मिलता तो आज का काम चलता। पर वह तो ऐसा चतुर है कि पकड़ में ही नहीं आता।
- कछुआ : हाँ, गीदड़ को पकड़ना तो बहुत कठिन है।
- मगरमच्छ : मित्र ! कोई ऐसा उपाय करो कि वह पकड़ में आ जाए। उसे खाकर आज मैं अपनी भूख मिटा लूँगा। मैं तुम्हारा बहुत उपकार मानूँगा।
- कछुआ : अच्छा ! तुम कहते हो तो चला जाता हूँ। किसी तरह गीदड़ को इधर लाने की कोशिश करता हूँ। (कुछ सोचकर) लेकिन पहले तुम एक काम करो। (कान में कुछ कहता है)
- मगरमच्छ : ठीक है, ठीक है। मैं ऐसा ही करूँगा।

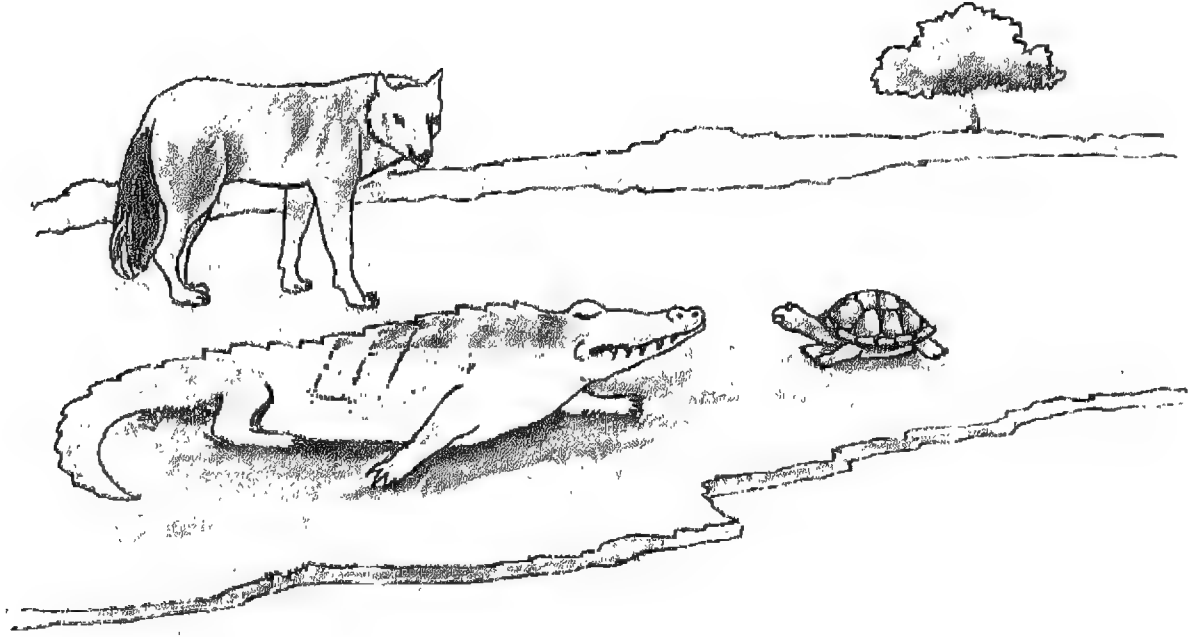
(दूसरा दृश्य)

(एक ओर मगरमच्छ साँस रोके मरा हुआ सा पड़ा है और कछुआ पास खड़ा है।)

- कछुआ : (दूर से गीदड़ को आते हुए देखकर) हाय ! अब मैं क्या करूँ ! मेरे प्यारे मित्र को न जाने क्या हो गया ! अचानक उसके प्राण निकल गए। अब तो मैं बिलकुल अकेला रह गया।

(गीदड़ का प्रवेश)

- गीदड़ : क्या है भाई कछुए ? क्यों रो रहे हो ?
- कछुआ : मेरा प्यारा मित्र मगरमच्छ स्वर्ग सिधार गया। अब दुनिया में मेरा कोई नहीं रहा।
- गीदड़ : क्या कहा ? मगरमच्छ मर गया ? (अपने आप से) अब तो मैं निश्चित होकर तालाब का पानी पी सकता हूँ। उसके डर से मैं कई बार प्यासा ही रह जाता था।
- कछुआ : क्या कहा, क्या कहा ?
- गीदड़ : नहीं, कुछ नहीं, कुछ नहीं, यह तो बड़े दुख की बात है। मैं तुम्हारी क्या सहायता कर सकता हूँ ?
- कछुआ : आओ, उस पर कुछ सूखे पत्ते डालकर उसे ढाँप दें। देखो, मरा पड़ा है।
- गीदड़ : (डरते-डरते कुछ पास जाकर, धीमे स्वर में) अरे, यह तो बिलकुल शांत है। नहीं, नहीं (ऊँचे स्वर में) यह तो साँस ले रहा है। भाई कछुए ! क्या यह सचमुच मर गया है ?
- कछुआ : हाँ-हाँ ! देखते नहीं, यह मरा पड़ा है।



- गीदड़** : पर भाई, मैंने तो सुना है कि मर जाने पर मगरमच्छ की दुम हिलती रहती है। लगता है, अभी यह पूरी तरह नहीं मरा।
- कछुआ** : नहीं भाई, यह बिलकुल मर गया है। (तभी मगरमच्छ अपनी दुम हिलाने लगता है)
- गीदड़** : (भागकर दूर जाते हुए) ओह ! अपने मित्र को देखो, अपने मित्र को देखो !
- कछुआ** : (ऊँचे स्वर में) खोल दो आँखें। भाग गया गीदड़। तुम बिलकुल मूर्ख हो। तुम उस चतुर गीदड़ की चाल में आ ही गए। अब उसे पकड़ना मुश्किल है।

1. किसने कहा? क्यों कहा?

- (क) भूख के मारे मेरे प्राण निकल रहे हैं।
- (ख) अब तो मैं बिलकुल अकेला रह गया।
- (ग) पर वह तो ऐसा चतुर है कि पकड़ में ही नहीं आता।
- (घ) अब तो मैं निश्चित होकर तालाब का पानी पी सकता हूँ।
- (ङ) लगता है अभी यह पूरी तरह नहीं मरा।

2. अर्थ बताकर वाक्य बनाओ

समाप्त कठिन उपाय उपकार चतुर

3. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

दू + य = द्यू	विद्या, विद्यालय, विद्यार्थी
दू + व = दूव	द्वार, विद्वान, द्वारिका
दू + ध = दूध	युद्ध, शुद्ध, सिद्धार्थ
दू + ऋ = दृ	दृश्य, दृढ़, दृष्टि

4. बताओ

इस पाठ का कौन-सा भाग तुम्हें सबसे अच्छा लगता है? क्यों?

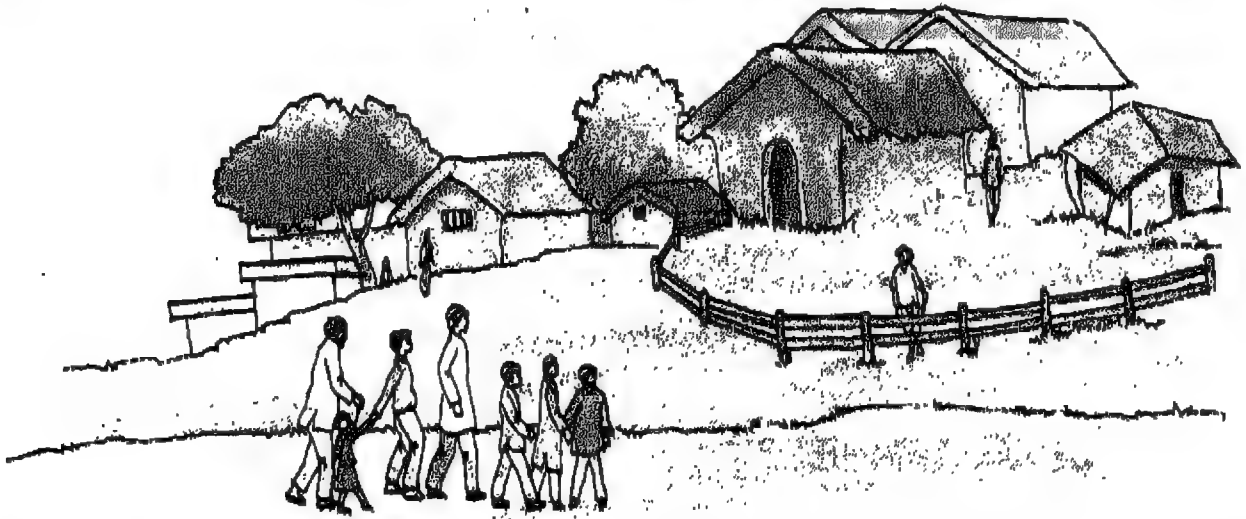
5. करो

- (क) इस पाठ को कहानी के रूप में सुनाओ।
- (ख) इस नाटक का अभिनय करो।

ईद	ईदगाह	ईदी	पंक्ति	नमाज़
मिठाइयाँ	त्योहार	मुबारक	ईदुलफ़ितर	खर्च

आज ईद का त्योहार है। छोटे-बड़े सभी ईदगाह जाने की तैयारी कर रहे हैं। सभी ने नए कपड़े पहने हैं। बच्चे बहुत खुश हैं। उन्हें आज ईदी मिली है। वे ईदी के पैसों को बार-बार गिनते हैं। इन्हीं पैसों से वे खिलौने, मिठाइयाँ और गुब्बारे खरीदेंगे। सबसे अधिक उत्साह उन्हें मेला देखने का है।

अब्दुल भी आज बहुत प्रसन्न है। उसके पिता ने उसके लिए नया कुरता, पाजामा और टोपी बनवाई है। नहा-धोकर वह भी ईदगाह जाने की तैयारी कर रहा है। उसकी बहिन सलमा ने भी नया कुरता और सलवार पहनी है। वह गोटेवाली चुन्नी ओढ़कर बहुत खुश है।



अध्यापन संकेत : बच्चे घरों में विभिन्न त्योहार मनाते हैं— चर्चा करें। विशेष रूप से ईद के बारे में पूछें कि यह त्योहार कैसे मनाया जाता है। यह खुशी और भाईचारे का त्योहार है— इसे उभारें। बच्चों की भूमिका को स्पष्ट करें। 'ईदी' के बारे में बताएँ कि ईदी के रूप में बच्चों को कुछ पैसे दिए जाते हैं। ईद से संबंधित शब्दों के अर्थ समझाएँ। मिठाई-मिठाइयाँ, दवाई-दवाईयाँ तथा इसी तरह के कुछ अन्य शब्दों के बहुवचन श्यामपट पर लिखकर बताएँ। त्योहारों से संबंधित कोई कविता याद करवाएँ।

गाँव से लोगों की टोली ईदगाह की तरफ़ निकल पड़ी है। साथ में बच्चे भी हैं। वे उछलते-कूदते, हँसते-खेलते जा रहे हैं। सब लोग ईदगाह पहुँच गए हैं। वहाँ सभी ने पंक्ति बनाकर नमाज़ पढ़ी। नमाज़ समाप्त होने पर सभी गले मिले और एक दूसरे को 'ईद मुबारक' कहा।

ईदगाह के बाहर मेला लगा हुआ है। मिठाई और खिलौनों की दुकानें सजी हैं। झूले भी लगे हुए हैं। बच्चे झूला झूल रहे हैं।

अब्दुल के पिता ने बच्चों के लिए मिठाई खरीदी। खिलौने की दुकान से अब्दुल ने सलमा और अपने लिए खिलौने खरीदे।

सभी घर लौटे। अब्दुल को देखते ही सलमा दौड़ी। अब्दुल ने उसे मिठाई और खिलौने दिए। सलमा बहुत खुश हुई।



आज घर-घर में मीठी सेवइयाँ बनी हैं। सभी सेवइयाँ खाते हैं और एक-दूसरे को 'ईद मुबारक' कहते हैं। इस ईद का नाम है — ईदुलफ़ितर, पर सब इसे 'मीठी ईद' कहते हैं।

शाम को विनोद, कुलदीप और विक्टर अब्दुल के घर 'ईद मुबारक' कहने आए। अब्दुल की माँ ने उन्हें मीठी सेवइयाँ खाने को दीं।

ईद, मिलन और भाईचारे का त्योहार है।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) ईद के दिन नमाज़ पढ़ने कहाँ जाते हैं?
- (ख) ईद के दिन बच्चे बहुत खुश क्यों थे?
- (ग) ईदगाह के बाहर क्या हो रहा था?
- (घ) विनोद, कुलदीप और विक्टर अब्दुल के घर क्यों गए?
- (ङ) ईदुलफ़ितर को 'मीठी ईद' क्यों कहते हैं?

2. वाक्य पूरे करो

ईद मुबारक सेवइयाँ पंक्ति ईदगाह

- (क) ईद के दिन लोग में नमाज़ पढ़ने जाते हैं।
- (ख) ईदगाह में सभी ने बनाकर नमाज़ पढ़ी।
- (ग) सब एक-दूसरे को कहते हैं।
- (घ) आज माँ बनाएगी।

3. सही वाक्य चुनो

नीचे लिखे वाक्य पढ़ो। पाठ के अनुसार जो वाक्य ठीक हैं उन पर (✓) निशान लगाओ।

- () सभी नमाज़ पढ़ने ईदगाह जाते हैं।
- () सलमा ने नाचने वाली गुड़िया खरीदी।
- () ईद के दिन सभी नए कपड़े पहनते हैं।
- () अब्दुल विक्टर के घर 'ईद मुबारक' कहने गया।
- () सब एक-दूसरे को 'ईद मुबारक' कहते हैं।

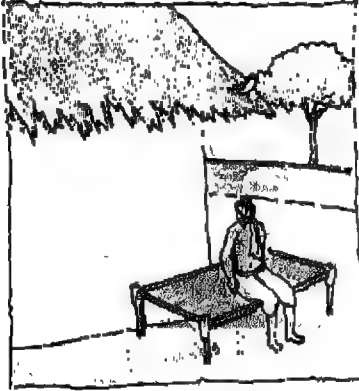
4. लिखो

ईद का त्योहार कैसे मनाया जाता है — पाँच वाक्य लिखो।

5. श्रुतलेख

मिठाइयाँ	अब्दुल	पंक्ति	ईदुलफ़ितर	त्योहार
मुबारक	सेवइयाँ	ईदगाह	खिलौना	उत्साह

किसान



नहीं हुआ है अभी सवेरा
पूरब की लाली पहचान
चिड़ियों के जगने से पहले
खाट छोड़ उठ गया किसान।

खिला-पिलाकर बैलों को ले
करने चला खेत पर काम
नहीं कभी त्योहार न छुट्टी
उसको नहीं कभी आराम।



गरम-गरम लू चलती सन-सन
धरती जलती तवा समान
तब भी करता काम खेत पर
बिना किए आराम किसान।

अध्यापन संकेत : कविता का स्वयं इस प्रकार भावपूर्ण व्याचन करें कि बच्चे इसे समझकर आनंद उठाएँ। नहीं कभी त्योहार न छुट्टी, उसको नहीं कभी आराम, धरती जलती तवा समान, मूसलधार बरसता पानी आदि के भाव स्पष्ट करें। 'समान' शब्द के प्रयोग द्वारा दो वस्तुओं या जीवों के बीच बराबरी दिखाई जाती है, जैसे— तवे के समान तपना, बरफ के समान ठंडा आदि। चर्चा कर ध्यान दिलाएँ : मेहनत से काम करने वालों का आदर करना चाहिए। संभव हो तो बच्चों को खेत पर ले जाएँ और किसान से बातचीत कर उसकी दिनचर्या के विषय में जानकारी दिलवाएँ।



बादल गरज रहे गड़-गड़-गड़
बिजली चमक रही चम-चम
मूसलधार बरसता पानी
ज़रा न रुकता लेता दम।

हाथ-पाँव ठिठुरे जाते हैं
घर से बाहर निकले कौन
फिर भी आग जला, खेतों की
रखवाली करता वह मौन।

है किसान को चैन कहाँ, वह
करता रहता हरदम काम
सोचा नहीं कभी भी उसने
घर पर रह करना आराम।

1. सही अर्थ ढूँढो

नीचे लिखे (क) और (ख) वाक्यों को एक-एक करके पढ़ो और हर एक वाक्य के नीचे लिखे उसके सही अर्थ पर (✓) लगाओ।

(क) धरती जलती तवा समान
[] धरती बहुत गरम हो जाती है।
[] धरती पर आग जलने लगती है।

(ख) हाथ-पाँव ठिठुरे जाते हैं।
[] हाथ-पाँव काम करना बंद कर देते हैं।
[] बहुत सरदी लगती है।

2. बताओ और लिखो

कौन-सी ऋतु है —

जब हाथ-पाँव ठिठुरते हैं

.....

जब धरती तवे की तरह जलती है

.....

जब बादल गरजते हैं

.....

3. करो

इस कविता को याद करो और कक्षा में सुनाओ।

रास्ते का पत्थर

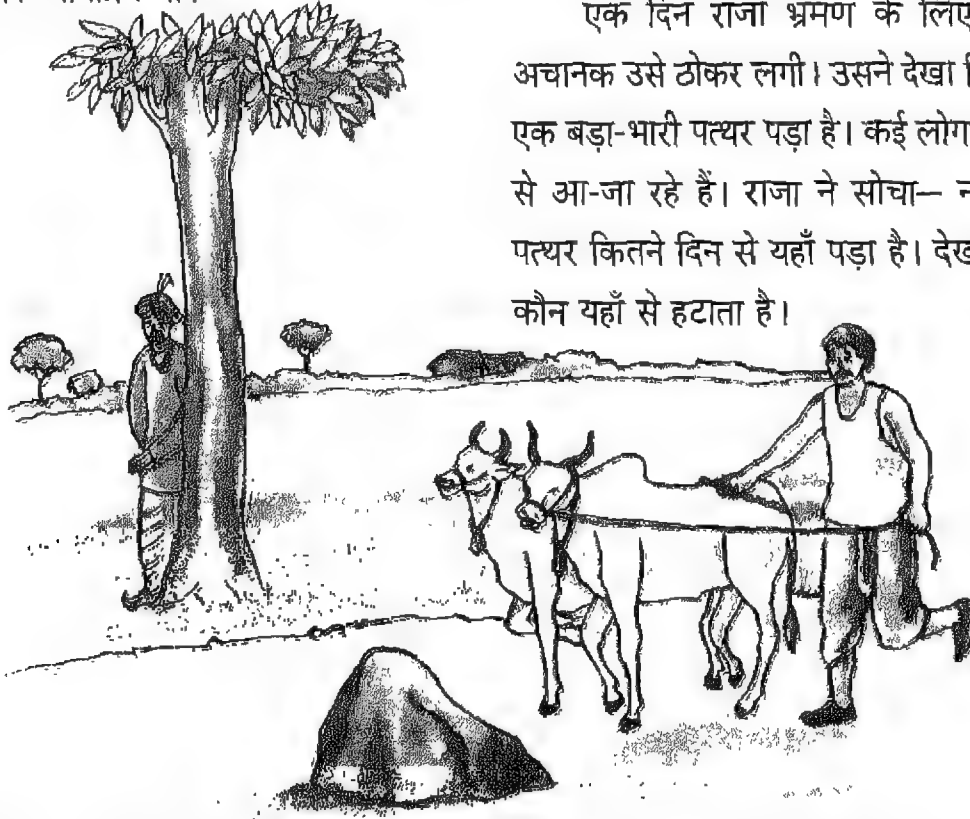
न्यायप्रिय
ग्राहक

भ्रमण
मुख्य

वृद्ध
आशीर्वाद

विद्यार्थियों
प्रशंसा

एक राजा था। उसे अपनी प्रजा से बहुत प्यार था। वह प्रजा की भलाई का सदा ध्यान रखता था। राजा दयालु और न्यायप्रिय था।



एक दिन राजा भ्रमण के लिए निकला। अचानक उसे ठोकर लगी। उसने देखा कि रास्ते में एक बड़ा-भारी पत्थर पड़ा है। कई लोग उसी रास्ते से आ-जा रहे हैं। राजा ने सोचा— न जाने यह पत्थर कितने दिन से यहाँ पड़ा है। देखता हूँ, इसे कौन यहाँ से हटाता है।

अध्यापन संकेत : बच्चों को स्वयं कहानी पढ़ने को प्रेरित करें जिससे उनमें मौन वाचन की आदत का विकास हो सके। कुछ प्रश्न श्यामपट पर लिखें और उनके उत्तर खोजने के लिए कहें। श और स के शुद्ध उच्चारण पर ध्यान दें। प्रशंसा, किसान, शंकर, सिपाही, पाठशाला, आलसी, आशीर्वाद आदि पढ़वाएँ तथा लिखवाएँ। उभारें : आगे बढ़कर स्वयं काम करने वाले व्यक्ति ही जीवन में सफल होते हैं।



राजा पास ही एक पेड़ के पीछे छिप गया। थोड़ा देर में राजा को एक किसान दिखाई दिया। वह अपने हल-बैल लेकर उसी रास्ते पर आ रहा था। किसान ने पत्थर को देखा और अपने बैलों को मोड़कर आगे निकल गया।

किसान के जाने के बाद एक दूधवाला डिब्बे में दूध लेकर उधर से निकला। उसने पत्थर नहीं देखा और ठोकर खाकर गिर पड़ा। दूधवाले के घुटने पर चोट लगी और सारा दूध बह गया। वह बड़ी मुश्किल से उठा और बड़बड़ाता हुआ बोला, “रास्ते में इतना बड़ा पत्थर पड़ा हुआ है और कोई उसे हटाता नहीं। मेरा इतना दूध गिर गया, अब मैं ग्राहकों को क्या दूँगा।”

दूधवाला लँगड़ाता हुआ अपने रास्ते चला गया। उसने भी पत्थर नहीं हटाया। जैसे ही राजा पेड़ के पीछे से निकला, उसे घोड़े की टाप सुनाई दी। वह फिर पेड़ के पीछे छिप गया।

इतने में घोड़ा पत्थर के पास आ गया। राजा ने देखा घोड़े पर एक सिपाही बैठा है। वह मस्ती से गा रहा है। अचानक घोड़े को पत्थर से ठोकर लगी। घोड़ा पीछे हटा। सिपाही गिरते-गिरते बचा। उसने नीचे देखा और ऊँचे स्वर में बोला, “मैं कई दिन से इस पत्थर को यहाँ पड़ा हुआ देख रहा हूँ, पर कोई इसे हटाता नहीं। यहाँ के लोग बहुत आलसी हैं।”

सिगाही ने अपना घोड़ा आगे बढ़ाया और दूर निकल गया।

कुछ ही देर में एक बूढ़ा आदमी अपने सिर पर फलों की टोकरी लिए आया और पत्थर से ठोकर खाकर गिर पड़ा। उसके सारे फल रास्ते में बिखर गए। तभी एक लड़का दौड़ता हुआ आया और बूढ़े को उठाते हुए बोला, “बाबा, कहीं चोट तो नहीं लगी?”

“नहीं बेटा, पर मेरे फल” बूढ़े ने कहा।

“आप यहीं रुकिए, मैं अभी फल उठाकर टोकरी में रख देता हूँ”, लड़के ने कहा। उसने फल उठाकर वृद्ध की टोकरी में रख दिए। बालक को आशीर्वाद देते हुए वृद्ध चला गया। लड़के ने इधर-उधर देखा और फिर रास्ते से पत्थर हटाने लगा। पत्थर थोड़ा-सा हिला और फिर अपनी जगह आ गया। लड़के ने फिर प्रयत्न किया, पर पत्थर नहीं हिला। उसने इधर-उधर देखा और फिर पत्थर को हटाने का प्रयत्न करने लगा। अचानक पत्थर हिला। लड़के ने देखा कि एक आदमी उसकी सहायता कर रहा है। दोनों ने मिलकर जोर लगाया और पत्थर को रास्ते से हटाकर एक ओर कर दिया।

उस आदमी ने पूछा, “बेटा, तुम कौन हो?”

लड़के ने कहा, “मैं शंकर हूँ,” इसी गाँव में रहता हूँ।

दूसरे दिन शंकर पाठशाला पहुँचा। उसके मुख्य अध्यापक ने सभी विद्यार्थियों के सामने उसकी प्रशंसा की। उन्होंने बताया कि शंकर को राजा ने पुरस्कार दिया है।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) राजा पेड़ के पीछे क्यों छिप गया?
- (ख) किसान ने पत्थर देखकर क्या किया?
- (ग) लड़का पहले पत्थर क्यों नहीं हटा सका?
- (घ) पत्थर अचानक कैसे हिल गया?
- (ङ) राजा ने लड़के को इनाम क्यों दिया?

2. किसने कहा? किससे कहा? क्यों कहा?

- (क) “देखता हूँ, इसे कौन हटाता है?”
- (ख) “यहाँ के लोग बहुत आलसी हैं।”
- (ग) “बाबा, कहीं चोट तो नहीं लगी?”
- (घ) “बेटा, तुम कौन हो?”

3. पढ़ो, समझो और लिखो

(क)	न्यायप्रिय	=	न्याय + प्रिय	(ख)	भला	भलाई
	राजकुमार	=		बुरा
	राजमहल	=		लंबा
	राष्ट्रपति	=		चौड़ा
	पाठशाला	=		गहरा

4. श्रुतलेख

प्रजा	भ्रमण	न्यायप्रिय	प्रयत्न	विद्यार्थी
पुरस्कार	प्रशंसा	पत्थर	वृद्ध	आशीर्वाद

5. करो

इस कहानी के किसी अंश का अभिनय करो।

छब्बीस जनवरी की परेड

परेड	राजपथ	राष्ट्रपति	सेनाध्यक्ष	राष्ट्रीय
कमांडर	टैंक	रेगिस्तान	अभिवादन	प्रदान
रक्षामंत्री	लोकनर्तक	लोकनृत्य	स्वीकार	

नई दिल्ली

27 जनवरी, 2001

प्रिय अमर

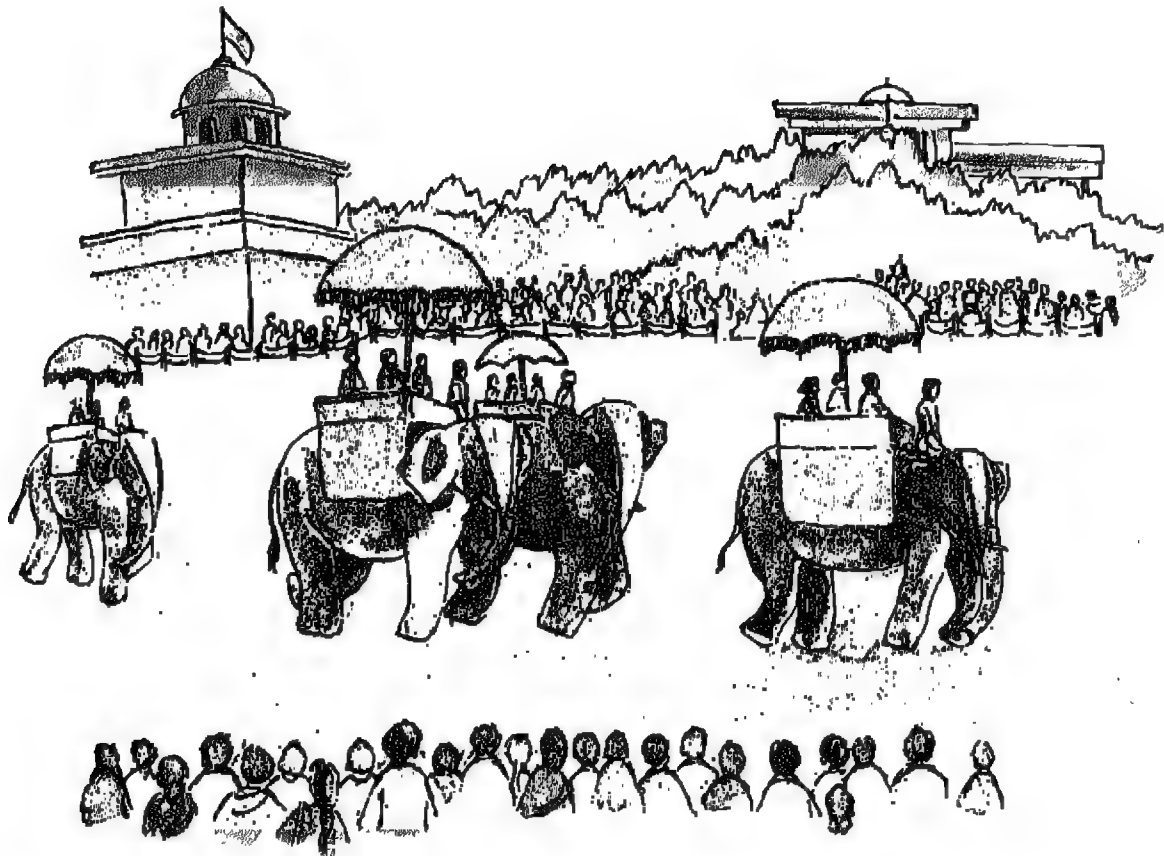
तुम्हें मेरा पहला पत्र मिल गया होगा। कल छब्बीस जनवरी थी। हम छब्बीस जनवरी की परेड देखने गए थे। अगर तुम भी हमारे साथ होते तो कितना अच्छा होता !

इस परेड को देखने के लिए दूर-दूर से लोग आए हुए थे। हमारे पास परेड देखने का पास था। हम समय से कुछ पहले ही पहुँच कर कुरसियों पर बैठ गए। सूरज निकलने तक वहाँ काफ़ी भीड़ हो गई थी। बहुत से विदेशी भी इस परेड को देखने आए हुए थे। परेड के रास्ते के दोनों ओर बड़ी भीड़ थी। पुलिस के जवान घूम-घूमकर लोगों को ठीक तरह से बैठाने का प्रबंध कर रहे थे।

सब लोगों की आँखें राजपथ की ओर लगी हुई थीं। उसी समय विजय चौक से राष्ट्रपति की सवारी आती दिखाई दी।

राष्ट्रपति के आने पर प्रधानमंत्री, रक्षामंत्री और सेनाध्यक्ष ने उनका स्वागत किया। राष्ट्रपति ने सबका अभिवादन स्वीकार किया। फिर सब अपनी-अपनी जगह बैठ गए।

सबसे पहले राष्ट्रपति ने झंडा फहराया। उन्हें इक्कीस तोपों की सलामी दी गई। हैलीकॉप्टर से अध्यापन संकेत : विद्यालय में गणतंत्र दिवस कैसे मनाया गया — चर्चा कीजिए। पूछिए— क्या तुमने दूरदर्शन पर छब्बीस जनवरी की परेड देखी? क्या-क्या देखा? तुम्हें क्या अच्छा लगा? क्या तुम भी परेड में शामिल होना चाहोगे? तुम परेड में क्या करना चाहोगे? पत्र लिखने के तरीके की ओर ध्यान दिलाएँ। वीरता पुरस्कार के संबंध में जानकारी दें। किसी पुरस्कार पाने वाले बच्चे के बारे में बताएँ कि उसे पुरस्कार क्यों दिया गया। छब्बीस जनवरी और पंद्रह अगस्त हमारे राष्ट्रीय त्योहार हैं— चर्चा करें।

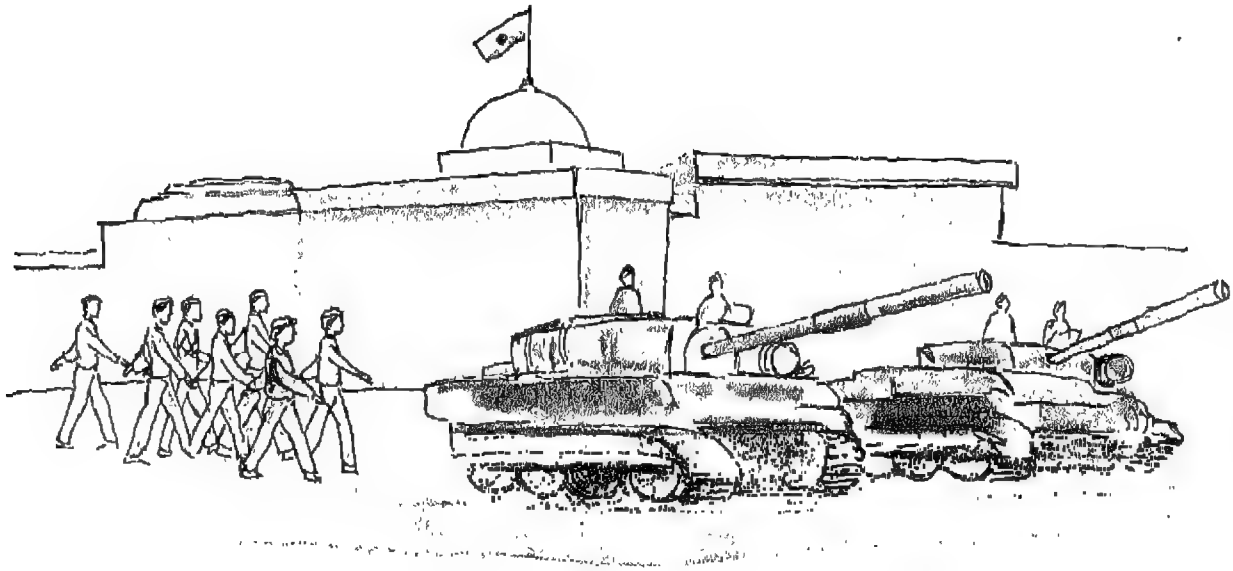


राजपथ पर फूलों की वर्षा की गई। इसके कुछ देर बाद परेड आती दिखाई दी। सबसे आगे एक जीप-गाड़ी थी। इसमें परेड कमांडर हाथ में खुली तलवार लिए खड़े थे। जीप धीरे-धीरे आगे बढ़ रही थी। इसके पीछे सेना के जवान पंक्तियों में कदम-से-कदम मिलाकर चल रहे थे।

परेड में सभी तरह की सैनिक टुकड़ियाँ थीं। प्रत्येक टुकड़ी की अलग-अलग वरदी थी। सभी के अपने-अपने बैंड थे जिनकी धुनें बड़ी अच्छी लग रही थीं। थल-सेना के सैनिकों के पीछे सफ़ेद वरदी पहने नौसेना के जवान थे। उनके पीछे-पीछे वायु-सेना के जवान चल रहे थे। कितना सुंदर था वह दृश्य!

अब घुड़सवार आ रहे थे। घोड़ों पर बैठे हुए ये सैनिक बहुत अच्छे लग रहे थे। उनके पीछे-पीछे रेगिस्तान में लड़ने वाले जवान थे। वे ऊँटों पर बैठे थे। यह देखकर बड़ा आश्चर्य होता था कि घोड़े और ऊँट भी कदम से कदम मिलाकर पंक्तियों में चल रहे थे।

घोड़ों और ऊँटों के बाद आई बड़ी-बड़ी फ़ौजी गाड़ियाँ जिनमें से किसी पर तोपें और किसी पर मशीनगनें रखी हुई थीं। इनके पीछे धड़-धड़ करते टैंक चल रहे थे। जब फ़ौजी गाड़ियाँ सड़क के दोनों ओर बैठे लोगों के सामने से निकलतीं तब वे इन्हें आश्चर्य से देखते रह जाते।



फ़ौजी गाड़ियों के पीछे चल रहे थे विद्यालयों के सैकड़ों विद्यार्थी। वे कदम-से-कदम मिलाकर चलते हुए देशभक्ति के गीत गा रहे थे। उनका व्यायाम-प्रदर्शन और नृत्य देखने लायक था। वे राष्ट्रपति के सामने से निकलते हुए उन्हें सलामी देते और आगे बढ़ जाते।

तभी सजे हुए हाथी आते दिखाई दिए। इन पर बैठे थे— वे बहादुर बच्चे जिन्हें इस वर्ष बहादुरी के कामों के लिए 'वीरता पुरस्कार' प्रदान किया गया था।

इतने में अलग-अलग राज्यों की झाँकियाँ निकलनी शुरू हुईं। इनमें अपने-अपने राज्य की खास-खास बातें दिखाई गई थीं। किसी पर खेती का दृश्य था, तो किसी पर कारखाने का। एक झाँकी तो पूरी की पूरी फूलों से ही बनी थी। वे झाँकियाँ बहुत सुंदर थीं।

अंत में आकाश में उड़ते हवाई जहाजों ने राष्ट्रपति को सलामी दी। हवाई जहाज राष्ट्रीय झंडे के तीन रंगों का धुआँ छोड़ रहे थे। देखकर लगता था मानो आकाश में बहुत से तिरंगे उड़ रहे हों। तभी राजपथ से तीन रंगों के गुब्बारे भी छोड़े गए। कैसा लुभावना दृश्य था वह !

अमर ! अगले साल तुम दिल्ली अवश्य आना ! हम दोनों मिलकर परेड देखेंगे। अपनी माता जी और पिता जी को मेरा प्रणाम कहना।

तुम्हारा मित्र
राजेंद्र

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) राजेंद्र ने अमर को पत्र क्यों लिखा?
- (ख) छब्बीस जनवरी की परेड में किसको सलामी दी जाती है।
- (ग) झाँकियों में क्या-क्या होता है?
- (घ) परेड में हवाई जहाज़ क्या करते हैं?
- (ङ) परेड में तुम किस रूप में भाग लेना पसंद करोगे?

2. वाक्यों के सही अर्थ बताओ

नीचे लिखे (क) वाक्य को पढ़ो। फिर इसके नीचे लिखे अर्थों में से सही अर्थ पर (✓) लगाओ। इसी तरह से (ख) वाक्य करो।

- (क) लोगों की आँखें राजपथ की ओर लगी हुई थीं।
 - [] लोग राजपथ की ओर देख रहे थे।
 - [] लोग राजपथ की ओर आ रहे थे।
- (ख) कैसा लुभावना दृश्य था वह!
 - [] भीड़ भरा दृश्य था।
 - [] बहुत सुंदर दृश्य था।

3. बोलो और समझो

स	—	सब	साल	सूरज	समुद्र	हँसना	छब्बीस
श	—	शत्रु	शाल	शोभा	शस्त्र	शीशा	शौक

4. करो

छब्बीस जनवरी की परेड से संबंधित चित्रों का संग्रह करो।

जादू का बुरुश

बुरुश	शौक	चित्रकार	अभ्यास	क्रोध	प्रकार
प्रबंध	निर्धन	आवश्यकता	बेचैन	आँगन	

सुरेश एक निर्धन बालक था। वह पढ़ने-लिखने में बहुत होशियार था। उसे चित्र बनाने का बहुत शौक था। अपने घर की दीवारों पर उसने तरह-तरह के सुंदर चित्र बना रखे थे।

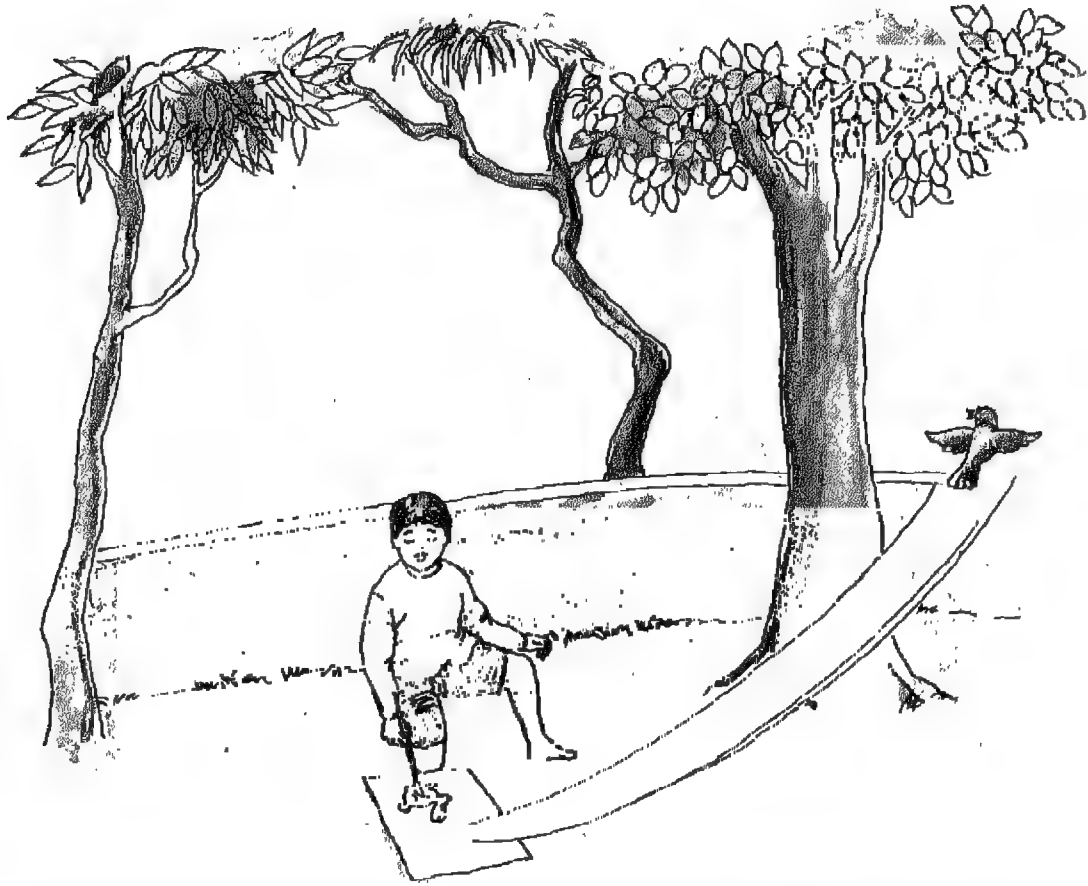
गाँव के लोग उन चित्रों को देखते और आश्चर्य करते। वे कहते, "शाबास सुरेश! तुम बहुत सुंदर चित्र बनाते हो। यदि अभ्यास करते रहे तो एक दिन बहुत अच्छे चित्रकार बनोगे।"

सुरेश उनकी बात सुनकर बहुत प्रसन्न होता। वह चित्र बनाने का और अधिक अभ्यास करता। लेकिन उसके पास बुरुश और रंग न थे। वह किसी पेड़ की डाली से बुरुश बनाता और फूल-पत्तियों से रंग निकालता।

सुरेश कई बार सोचता, "मेरे पास एक बुरुश होता तो कितना अच्छा होता!" सुरेश के मन की यह इच्छा भी पूरी हो गई। एक दिन वह पाठशाला से घर लौटा तो आँगन में एक बुरुश पड़ा देखा। उसे देखकर वह बहुत प्रसन्न हुआ। दौड़कर जब उसने बुरुश उठाया तो उसे नीचे एक कागज़ दिखाई दिया। कागज़ पर लिखा था — यह जादू का बुरुश है। इसे सोच-समझकर काम में लाना।

"कितना अच्छा बुरुश है! इससे तो मैं बहुत सुंदर चित्र बना सकूँगा", सुरेश ने मन-ही-मन सोचा। उसके हाथ चित्र बनाने को बेचैन हो रहे थे। उसने तुरंत एक चिड़िया का चित्र बना दिया। चित्र पूरा होते ही, वह सचमुच की चिड़िया बन गई। सुरेश आश्चर्यचकित देखता ही रह गया और चिड़िया फुर से उड़ गई।

अध्यापन संकेत : कहानी स्वयं पढ़कर सुनाएँ। बच्चों से कहानी का एक-एक अंश पढ़वाएँ। प्रसन्न, बुरुश, क्रोध, समुद्र तथा निर्धन, आश्चर्य, फुर, मूर्ख में र और के प्रयोग की ओर ध्यान दिलाएँ। 'चित्र' शब्द के अंत में कार जोड़ने से चित्रकार शब्द बनता है। इसी तरह मूर्ति + कार = मूर्तिकार, शिल्प + कार = शिल्पकार आदि शब्दों के उदाहरण दें। कहानी का अभिनय कराएँ। ध्यान दिलाएँ : किसी ताकत या योग्यता का उपयोग सोच-समझकर ही करना चाहिए। उसका गलत इस्तेमाल नहीं करना चाहिए।



अब उसने खरगोश का एक चित्र बनाना प्रारंभ किया। जैसे ही चित्र पूरा हुआ, उसने देखा कि उसके सामने सचमुच का एक खरगोश है। “अरे ! यह तो सचमुच जादू का बुरुश है,” वह खुशी से चिल्ला उठा।

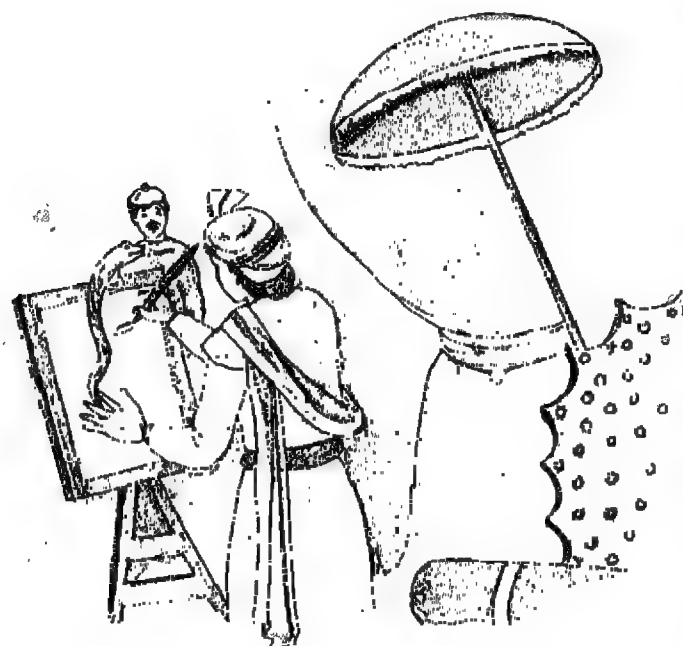
सुरेश उस बुरुश से जो भी चित्र बनाता, वह सचमुच की चीज़ बन जाती। सुरेश बहुत ही बुद्धिमान बालक था। वह खूब सोच-समझकर गाँववालों की ज़रूरत की चीज़ों के चित्र बनाता। फिर वह उन चीज़ों को गाँववालों को दे देता। इससे गाँववाले बहुत प्रसन्न होते। धीरे-धीरे आसपास के गाँवों में भी सुरेश का नाम फैल गया। लोग उसके पास सहायता के लिए आने लगे।

कुछ ही दिनों में सुरेश और उसके बुरुश की बात राजा तक भी जा पहुँची। राजा को बहुत आश्चर्य हुआ और उसने सुरेश को बुला भेजा। राजा ने सुरेश से तरह-तरह की चीज़ों के चित्र बनाने को कहा। सुरेश जानता था कि राजा को इन चीज़ों की कोई आवश्यकता नहीं है। इसलिए उसने कोई चित्र नहीं बनाया।

राजा को बहुत क्रोध आया। उसने सुरेश से बुरुश छीन लिया और बोला, “मूर्ख ! देख मैं इससे अभी सोने का पहाड़ बनाता हूँ।”

राजा ने पहाड़ का चित्र बनाना शुरू किया। परंतु जैसे ही वह चित्र पूरा हुआ, सोने के पहाड़ की जगह उसके सामने पत्थर का एक काला पहाड़ खड़ा था। देखते-ही-देखते उस पहाड़ के पत्थर इधर-उधर गिरने लगे।

राजा को बड़ा आश्चर्य हुआ। अब उसने सोने की छड़ का चित्र बनाया। जैसे ही चित्र पूरा हुआ, सोने की छड़ की जगह काला साँप बन गया। साँप बड़ी तेजी से राजा पर झपटा, राजा बुरी तरह डर गया। उसने



बुरुश एक ओर फेंक दिया और अपने सिपाहियों को आज्ञा दी, “इस शैतान को अभी पकड़ लो और जेल में बंद कर दो।”

सुरेश ने दौड़कर बुरुश उठाया ही था कि सिपाहियों ने उसे पकड़ लिया और जेल में बंद कर दिया।

जेल की कोठरी में बहुत अँधेरा था। वहाँ सरदी भी बहुत थी। सुरेश को खाने-पीने को भी कुछ नहीं दिया गया। पर सुरेश को जिस चीज़ की आवश्यकता होती वह उसका चित्र बनाता और वह वस्तु उसे मिल जाती।

तीन-चार दिन बाद राजा सुरेश को देखने गया। उसने खिड़की से झाँककर देखा कि सुरेश की कोठरी में सब प्रकार का प्रबंध है। वह बड़े आराम से कोठरी की दीवारों पर चित्र बना रहा है।

यह देखकर राजा गुस्से से लाल हो गया। उसने सिपाहियों से कहा, “इसे पकड़कर मेरे पास लाओ।”

आज्ञा पाते ही सिपाही कोठरी में घुसे, पर वहाँ कोई न था। सिपाहियों ने बाहर देखा कि सुरेश एक घोड़े पर चढ़कर भागा जा रहा है। सिपाही भी अपने-अपने घोड़ों पर बैठकर उसका पीछा करने लगे।

सुरेश ने जल्दी से अपने और सिपाहियों के बीच समुद्र का चित्र बना दिया। लहराता हुआ समुद्र देखकर सिपाही आगे न बढ़ सके।

इस तरह सुरेश राजा की पहुँच से बाहर हो गया। वह जहाँ-जहाँ जाता, गरीब लोगों की ज़रूरत की चीज़ों के चित्र बना-बनाकर उनकी सहायता करता। लोग उससे बहुत प्रसन्न रहते।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) सुरेश को कैसे पता चला कि बुरुश जादू का था?
- (ख) सुरेश लोगों की सहायता किस तरह करता था?
- (ग) सुरेश ने राजा के लिए चित्र क्यों नहीं बनाए?
- (घ) राजा ने सुरेश के साथ कैसा व्यवहार किया?
- (ङ) सुरेश ने समुद्र का चित्र क्यों बनाया?

2. लिखो

नीचे लिखे शब्दों में से कौन-से शब्द सुरेश के लिए आएँगे और कौन-से राजा के लिए?

चतुर बुरा अच्छा चित्रकार निर्दयी
लालची मेहनती साहसी डरपोक

3. मुहावरों का वाक्यों में प्रयोग करो

गुस्से से लाल होना = बहुत गुस्सा होना
नाम फैलना = बहुत मशहूर होना

4. इनके लिए एक शब्द बताओ

जो मूर्ति बनाए = मूर्तिकार
जो चित्र बनाए =
जो सेना में काम करे =
जहाँ पढ़ने जाते हैं =
जो इलाज करता है =

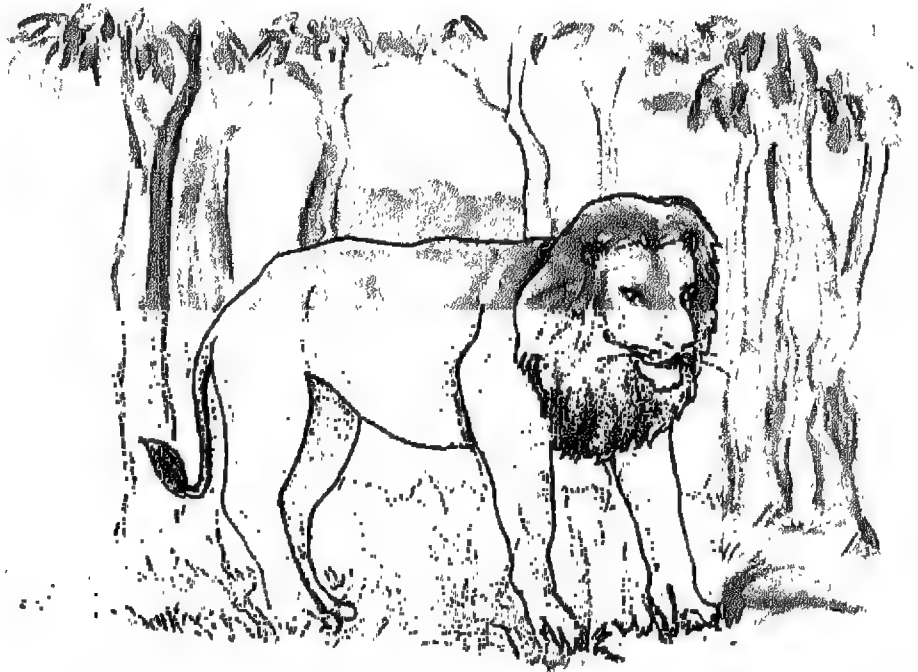
5. सोचो और बताओ

तुम्हें यदि जादू का बुरुश मिल जाए तो क्या करोगे?

जंगल का राजा

सिंह	दहाड़ना	पैने	केसरी	गद्दीदार
पालन-पोषण	अधिकतर	संख्या	सुरक्षा	निश्चित

क्या तुम जानते हो कि जंगल का राजा कौन है? सिंह । हाँ, सिंह ही जंगल का राजा है। जंगल में हाथी जैसे बड़े-बड़े पशु भी पाए जाते हैं पर सबसे अधिक निडर और साहसी सिंह ही होता है। देखने से ही यह जंगल का राजा लगता है। जब यह दहाड़ता है तो सारा जंगल काँप उठता है।



अध्यापन संकेत : जंगली पशुओं के बारे में बातचीत करें। पृष्ठ— जंगल का राजा कौन है? यह जंगल का राजा क्यों कहलाता है? आदि। कठिन शब्दों — गद्दीदार, केसरी, पैने, सुरक्षा, संख्या को अर्थपूर्ण वाक्यों में स्पष्ट करें। वाक्यांशों के लिए एक शब्द के रूप में मांसाहारी जैसे कुछ अन्य शब्द बताएँ। जंगली जानवर पर्यावरण की रक्षा में हमारे सहायक हैं अतः इनकी सुरक्षा का विशेष ध्यान रखना चाहिए— इस पर बल दें। अतिरिक्त जानकारी के लिए पुस्तकालय से 'सिंह' के बारे में कोई पुस्तक लेकर पढ़वाएँ। संरक्षित वनों के नाम तथा जिस राज्य में वे हैं लिखकर चाट बनावाएँ।

सिंह बिल्ली जाति का बलवान पशु है। इसके शरीर की बनावट और चाल बिल्ली जैसी ही होती है। बिल्ली की तरह यह भी अंधेरे में देख सकता है। इसके पंजे गद्दीदार होते हैं। इसीलिए जब सिंह चलता है तो आवाज़ बिलकुल नहीं होती। इसके पंजों के नाखून बहुत पैने होते हैं और दबाव पड़ने पर बाहर निकल आते हैं।

सिंह के बच्चे शुरू में बिलकुल बिल्ली के बच्चों जैसे ही लगते हैं। उनके शरीर पर पतली-पतली धारियाँ होती हैं। बच्चे जैसे-जैसे बड़े होते जाते हैं, धारियाँ कम होती जाती हैं और कुछ दिनों में बिलकुल समाप्त हो जाती हैं। तब इनका रंग भूरा हो जाता है।

सिंह आकार में सिंहनी से बड़ा होता है। उसकी गरदन पर लंबे-लंबे बाल होते हैं जिन्हें आयाल या केसर कहते हैं। इसी से सिंह को 'केसरी' भी कहा जाता है।

सिंह मांस खाता है। वह सूर्य छिपने पर ही शिकार की खोज में निकलता है। दिन में यह जहाँ भी जाता है, वहाँ चिड़ियाँ शोर मचाकर इसके आने की सूचना अन्य पशुओं को दे देती हैं। इसलिए दिन में यह किसी झाड़ी में सो जाता है और अँधेरा होने पर ही शिकार के लिए निकलता है। कभी-कभी यह शिकार की खोज में नदी या तालाब के किनारे छिपकर बैठ जाता है। जब कोई पशु पानी पीने आता है तब वह उस पर अचानक हमला कर देता है।

सिंह और सिंहनी दोनों मिलकर बच्चों का पालन-पोषण करते हैं। परंतु बच्चों को शिकार करना सिंहनी ही सिखाती है। वह अपने बच्चों को शिकार पर झपटना और पंजे चलाना सिखाती है। शिकार को खाने के बाद सिंहनी चाटकर उनके मुँह साफ़ कर देती है। कभी-कभी बच्चे शिकार पर झगड़ भी पड़ते हैं। तब सिंहनी माँ आती है और प्यार से एक थप्पड़ लगाती है। बच्चे शांत हो जाते हैं।

सिंह कई देशों में पाए जाते हैं। भारत में ये गुजरात में गिरनार के जंगलों में पाए जाते हैं।

मनुष्य इनका शिकार करता रहा है, इसलिए सिंहों की संख्या कम हो गई है। भारत सरकार ने इनके शिकार पर रोक लगा दी है। सिंह वन की शान है इसलिए इनकी रक्षा की जानी चाहिए।

1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) सिंह के चलने से पैरों की आवाज़ क्यों नहीं होती?
- (ख) सिंह दिन में शिकार क्यों नहीं करता?
- (ग) सिंह के बच्चे शिकार करना कैसे सीखते हैं?
- (घ) भारत में सिंह कहाँ पाया जाता है?

2. पढ़ो और करो

उन वाक्यों पर (✓) लगाओ जो सिंह की विशेषता बताते हैं।

- [] सिंह सबसे अधिक बलवान पशु है।
- [] सिंह केवल दिन में शिकार करता है।
- [] सिंह रात को देख सकता है।
- [] सिंह निडर और साहसी होता है।
- [] सिंह की गरदन पर छोटे-छोटे बाल होते हैं।
- [] जब सिंह दहाड़ता है, पूरा जंगल काँप उठता है।

3. लिंग बदलो

शेर	×	शेरनी	बाघ	×	बाघिन
सिंह	×	नाग	×

4. करो

बिल्ली जाति के पशुओं के चित्र एकत्रित करो और उनसे एक चार्ट बनाओ।

अर्जुन का निशाना

पांडु	पांडव	युधिष्ठिर	द्रोणाचार्य	लक्ष्य
अस्त्र-शस्त्र	शिष्य	परीक्षा	मिट्टी	

बात बहुत पहले की है। हमारे देश में एक राजा थे— पांडु । पांडु के पाँच पुत्र थे जिन्हें पांडव कहते हैं। युधिष्ठिर इनमें सबमें बड़े थे। युधिष्ठिर से छोटे थे— भीम, अर्जुन, नकुल और सहदेव।

पाँचों राजकुमार गुरु द्रोणाचार्य से अस्त्र-शस्त्र चलाना सीखते थे। भीम गदा चलाने में बहुत कुशल थे और अर्जुन धनुष-बाण चलाने में।



गुरु द्रोणाचार्य समय-समय पर अपने शिष्यों की परीक्षा लिया करते थे। एक दिन उन्होंने पेड़ पर मिट्टी की एक चिड़िया टाँग दी। फिर राजकुमारों से चिड़िया की आँख पर बाण मारने को कहा।

अध्यापन संकेत : महाभारत की चर्चा करते हुए अर्जुन के बारे में प्रश्न पूछें। प्रश्नों द्वारा पाठ में आए नामों को निकलवाएँ तथा श्यामपट पर लिखें। शुद्ध उच्चारण पर बल दें। विभिन्न समूहों में बच्चों से बारी-बारी से विभिन्न पात्रों का अभिनय करवाएँ।

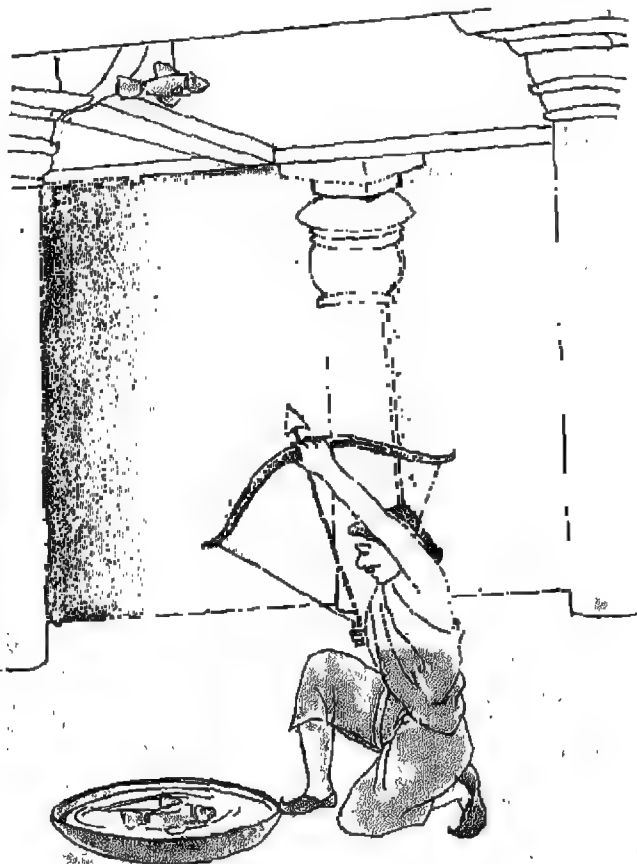
गुरु द्रोणाचार्य ने बारी-बारी से अपने सभी शिष्यों को बुलाया। उन्होंने चिड़िया की ओर संकेत करते हुए पूछा, “उधर देखो, तुम्हें क्या दिखाई देता है?”

किसी ने कहा, “गुरुजी, मुझे राजकुमार, पेड़ और चिड़िया” सब कुछ दिखाई दे रहा है। किसी ने कहा, “मुझे पेड़ और चिड़िया दिखाई दे रही है।” किसी ने कहा, “मुझे चिड़िया के पंख दिखाई दे रहे हैं।”

अर्जुन की बारी आने पर द्रोणाचार्य ने उससे भी वही प्रश्न किया। अर्जुन ने कहा, “गुरुजी ! मुझे तो केवल चिड़िया की आँख दिखाई दे रही है।”

अब द्रोणाचार्य ने बारी-बारी से सभी को बाण चलाने का आदेश दिया। अर्जुन का निशाना तो ठीक आँख पर लगा किंतु और भाइयों का निशाना चूक गया।

द्रोणाचार्य ने सभी राजकुमारों को बताया, “क्या तुम लोग समझ गए कि अर्जुन का तीर निशाने पर क्यों लगा? जिसे केवल लक्ष्य दिखाई दे वही सफल होता है। तुम लोगों को लक्ष्य के साथ-साथ और बहुत सी चीज़ें भी दिखाई दे रही थीं। इसलिए तुम्हारा ध्यान बँट गया और निशाना ठीक नहीं बैठा। अर्जुन का ध्यान केवल चिड़िया की आँख पर था, इसलिए उसका निशाना बिलकुल ठीक बैठा और बाण ठीक चिड़िया की आँख पर लगा।”



1. प्रश्नों के उत्तर दो

- (क) पांडव कौन थे? उनके नाम बताओ।
- (ख) द्रोणाचार्य राजकुमारों को क्या सिखाते थे?
- (ग) द्रोणाचार्य ने अपने शिष्यों की परीक्षा किस प्रकार ली?
- (घ) अर्जुन के भाइयों का निशाना क्यों चूक गया?

2. विपरीत अर्थवाले शब्द लिखो

युद्ध	×	कम	×
शत्रु	×	निर्धन	×
विजय	×	वीर	×

3. श्रुतलेख

अर्जुन	द्रोणाचार्य	नकुल	युधिष्ठिर	अस्त्र-शस्त्र
लक्ष्य	शत्रु	धनुष-वाण	शिष्य	मिट्टी

4. करो

इस कहानी का नाटक के रूप में अभिनय करो।

पहेलियाँ और चुटकुले

पहेलियाँ

एक थाल मोती से भरा
सिर के ऊपर औंधा धरा
जैसे-जैसे थाल फिरे
मोती उससे एक न गिरे।

ऊँट की बैठक, हिरन की चाल
कौन-सा जानवर, जिसके दुम न बाल?

दिन को सोए, रात को रोए
जितना रोए, उतना खोए।

ऐसा लिखिए शब्द बनाए
फूल, फल, मिठाई बन जाए।

पंछी एक देखा अलबेला
पंख बिना उड़ रहा अकेला
बांध गले में लंबी डोर
नाप रहा अंबर का छोर।



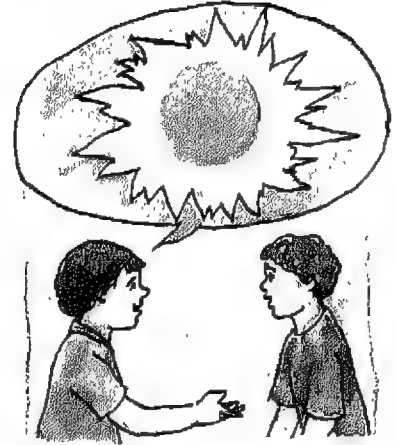
(उत्तर पृष्ठ 75 पर देखो)

अध्यापन संकेत : यह पाठ बच्चों के मनोरंजन तथा सूझबूझ की क्षमता बढ़ाने के लिए है। पहेलियाँ बुझाकर उत्तर पूछें। न बता पाने पर सहायता करें। कुछ अन्य पहेलियाँ भी बुझाने को दें। उन्हें मनपसंद पहेलियाँ याद करने और साथियों तथा घर के लोगों को सुनाने को प्रेरित करें।

बीरबल तथा तेनालीराम के प्रसिद्ध चुटकुले सुनाएँ और कुछ उनसे पढ़वाएँ। 'बीरबल की खिचड़ी' का अभिनय करवाएँ। इसमें बारी-बारी से हर बच्चे को भाग लेने का अवसर दें। पत्र-पत्रिकाओं से पहेलियाँ तथा चुटकुले एकत्र करवाकर समय-समय पर कक्षा में उनका उपयोग करें।

चुटकुले

अमित : भाई ! रात को सूर्य क्यों नहीं निकलता ?
 सुमित : निकलता तो है।
 अमित : फिर दिखाई क्यों नहीं देता ?
 सुमित : अरे ! अँधेरे में दिखाई कैसे देगा ?



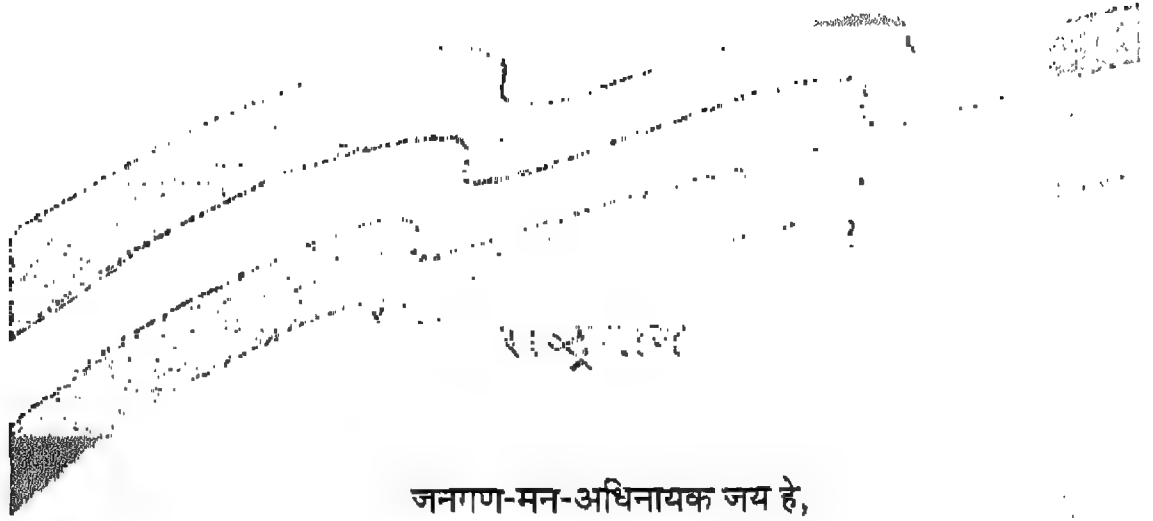
एक मित्र : भाई मनोज, तुम्हारे घर की मक्खियाँ बहुत तंग कर रही हैं। बार-बार उड़ता हूँ फिर भी आकर मुँह पर बैठ जाती हैं।
 मनोज : मैं भी इनकी आदत से परेशान हूँ। जो भी गंदी चीज़ देखती हैं, उसी पर बैठ जाती हैं।

मालकिन : रामू, मैंने कहा था, पूजा के लिए धूप ले आना।
 रामू : मगर लाता कहाँ से मालकिन ? आज तो दिन भर बादल छाए रहे।



पहेलियों के उत्तर

1. आकाश
2. मेंढक
3. मोमबत्ती
4. गुलाबजामुन
5. पतंग



जनगण-मन-अधिनायक जय हे,
भारत-भाग्य-विधाता ।

पंजाब-सिंधु-गुजरात-मराठा,
द्राविड़-उत्कल-बंग,
विंध्य-हिमाचल, यमुना-गंगा

उच्छल जलधि-तरंग,

तव शुभ नामे जागे,

तव शुभ आशिष मागे,

गाहे तव जय-गाथा ।

जनगण-मंगलदायक जय हे,

भारत-भाग्य-विधाता ।

जय हे, जय हे, जय हे,

जय जय जय, जय हे ।



कुछ कठिन शब्द और उनके अर्थ

1. बढ़े चलो

ध्वजा, ध्वज = झंडा, दहाड़ = सिंह की आवाज़, तड़क = बिजली का गिरना, टूटना

2. कबूतर और मधुमक्खियाँ

मधुमक्खी = शहद की मक्खी, प्रयत्न = कोशिश, उपाय = तरीका, प्रतीक्षा = इंतज़ार, विश्वास = भरोसा, रक्षा = बचाव, बचाना

3. स्वच्छता

स्वच्छता = सफ़ाई, प्रथम = पहला, बदबू = दुर्गंध, भिनकना = भिन-भिन करना, उत्साह = हौसला, दोष = बुराई, व्यक्ति = आदमी, सप्ताह = हफ़्ता, सात दिन

4. कोयल

मिसरी = मिठास, चीनी से बनी, मिश्री = मिठाई, संदेश = खबर, धरती = ज़मीन, पृथ्वी, मेघ = बादल, भली = अच्छी

5. ईश्वरचंद्र विद्यासागर

संकेत = इशारा, विशेष = खास, चरण = पाँव

6. तूफ़ान की सूचना

सूचना = खबर, भंडार = ढेर, खज़ाना, समुद्र = सागर, तट = किनारा, वृद्ध = बूढ़ा, स्त्रियाँ = औरतें, चिंतित = सोच (फ़िक्र) में पड़ा हुआ, डोंगी = छोटी नाव, सराहना = तारीफ़, प्रशंसा

7. रक्षाबंधन

पूर्णिमा = पूर्णमासी, जिस रात पूरा चाँद निकले, त्योहार = उत्सव, रक्षाबंधन = राखी का त्योहार, निराश = बिना आशा के, जिसे आशा न हो, सैनिक = सिपाही, संकटों = मुसीबतों, प्रण = प्रतिज्ञा, मुकाबला = सामना

8. गौरैया के लिए

पुरखे = दादा, परदादा, परती = ऐसी ज़मीन जिस पर बहुत समय तक खेती न की गई हो, बटोरना = इकट्ठा करना, उत्सुकता = जानने की इच्छा, चाव = शौक, निर्णय = फैसला, परिश्रम = मेहनत

9. सबसे बढ़कर

बाँह = बाजू, डोलना = हिलना, मनुष्य = इंसान, दुनिया = संसार

10. नीम

कुल्हाड़ी = लकड़ी काटने का औज़ार, आनंद = खुशी, शुद्ध = साफ़, निबौरी = नीम का फल, भाग = हिस्सा, कराहना = दर्द से 'आह-आह' करना

11. बीरबल की खिचड़ी

विद्वान = बहुत पढ़ा-लिखा, नम्रता = विनय, उपस्थित = हाज़िर, हाँडी = मिट्टी का एक बरतन, दीपक = दीया, सम्मान = आदर, भेंट की = उपहार के रूप में दी

12. फूलों की घाटी में

घाटी = दो पहाड़ों के बीच की नीची ज़मीन, देवलोक = स्वर्ग, महके = खुशबू फैले, फुलवारी = फूलों का छोटा बगीचा, मंद = धीमा, पवन = हवा, दुलारना = प्यार करना, न्यारी = अलग तरह की, अनोखी, भीनी = हलकी, बासंती = बसंत ऋतु की, तट = किनारा, निर्मल = साफ़

13. एडीसन

प्रकाश = रोशनी, बुद्धिमान = चतुर, होशियार, महान = बड़ा, उत्साह = हिम्मत, परिश्रम = मेहनत, उपयोग में = काम में, इस्तेमाल में, प्रयोग = इस्तेमाल, मग्न = डूबा हुआ, मगन

14. खेल दिवस

दिवस = दिन, प्रारंभ = शुरू, कतार = पंक्ति, करतब = अचरज में डालने वाले खेल, काम, चकित = हैरान

15. चिड़िया का गीत

आकार = शक्ति, रूप, संसार = दुनिया, तिनके = सूखी घास, शाखों = डालियों, सुकुमार = कोमल, पसार = फैलाकर

16. चतुर गीदड़

कठिन = मुश्किल, चट करना = खाकर समाप्त कर देना, कठिन = मुश्किल, उपकार = भलाई, चतुर = होशियार, निश्चित = बिना चिंता के, बेफिक्र, शांत = चुपचाप, सहायता = मदद, वुम = पूँछ

17. ईद

मुबारक = शुभ, बधाई

18. किसान

खाट = चारपाई, मूसलधार = बहुत अधिक वर्षा, चैन = आराम, शांति, मौन = चुपचाप

19. रास्ते का पत्थर

दयालु = दूसरों पर दया करने वाला, न्यायप्रिय = उचित न्याय करने वाला, भ्रमण = सैर, ग्राहक = खरीदने वाला, टाप = घोड़े के पैर की आवाज़, आशीर्वाद = आशीष, मुख्य = प्रधान, बड़ा, प्रशंसा = तारीफ़

20. छब्बीस जनवरी की परेड

दृश्य = नज़ारा, विद्यालय = पाठशाला, स्कूल, विद्यार्थी = पढ़ने वाले बच्चे, पुरस्कार = इनाम, वीरता-पुरस्कार = बहादुरी के काम करने के लिए दिया जाने वाला पुरस्कार, नर्तक = नाचने वाले, नृत्य = नाच, लोकनृत्य = अपने-अपने राज्यों में प्रचलित नाच

21. जादू का बुरुश

अभ्यास = कोई कार्य बार-बार करना, चित्रकार = चित्र बनाने वाला, आश्चर्यचकित = हैरान, आवश्यकता = जरूरत

22. जंगल का राजा

साहसी = हिम्मतवाला, पैने = तेज़, पालन-पोषण = पालकर बड़ा करना, मनुष्य = आदमी, चतुराई = होशियारी, संख्या = गिनती, सुरक्षा = बचाव

23. अर्जुन का निशाना

अस्त्र-शस्त्र = हथियार, कुशल = होशियार, लक्ष्य = निशाना

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stand the fundamental causes. Consequently no one person sees the student as a totality and only partial and incomplete assistance is given. In other cases a personnel worker competent to provide one type of assistance adds to the student's difficulties by attempting to assist with other types of problems without the requisite training.

Only by the piecing together of these fragments of the total picture and the focusing of all types of personnel assistance upon the problems and needs of each student can a balanced and adequate program of services be provided. This means that each school must provide a variety of personnel services corresponding to the many types of student needs and problems. Moreover, personnel workers must cooperate in many ways to insure adequate assistance to students. This is the fundamental characteristic of modern personnel work.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. Why is vocational guidance thought by some to be the whole of the personnel program?
2. What are the personnel functions of the principal?
3. What personnel functions are assigned to remedial teachers?
4. Do the terms guidance and personnel work have the same meaning? Give reasons for your answer.
5. What is the proper relationship between group work and individual counseling?
6. Why is there need for coordinating all types of personnel services?
7. Why does the school have responsibility for more than the "book learning" of pupils?
8. What must be known about each student before the school can be of maximum assistance to him?
9. Is mass education sufficient to assist students to develop? Give reasons for your answer.
10. What types of personnel workers are there? What services does each perform?
11. Should one type of worker perform more than one type of personnel service? Give reasons for your answer.

The Scope of Student Personnel Work

12. If teachers have personnel functions to perform, does it follow that instruction and personnel are identical?
13. What criticisms may be directed at many advisers of students?
14. What possible relationship is there between counseling and learning?
15. Do all students need some type of personnel assistance, or are they able to make some adjustments without assistance?
16. With what types of problems do students need clinical personnel services?

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CHAPTER IV

Group Work with Students

STUDENTS develop emotional balance and social-civic skills and attitudes through experiences in the home, classroom learning, community activities, and participation in extracurricular affairs in the school. An understanding of the facts and theories of political science and social psychology obviously are not sufficient to attain these broad objectives. Students must also learn by means of actual participation in life situations. From such a point of view the extracurriculum supplements the classroom curriculum and becomes an integral part of the educational program. Tradition may force us to discuss the two types of curriculums under separate headings, nevertheless, we recognize the fundamental unity underlying these two methods of assisting students to achieve desirable maturity. From the personnel point of view and that of progressive educators, the extracurriculum is not merely a phenomenon of adolescence to be tolerated but rather an educational method of basic importance.

In our earlier outline of the scope of student personnel work, we used the term group work borrowed from the field of social work, to designate the many student programs which are organized for participation in group activities. We recognized that, at present, this phase of secondary education is under the direct supervision of administrators and teachers and is usually not related to other personnel activities. This lack of integration is, in large part, the result of unwise efforts to restrict guidance to problems of vocational choice and orientation.

Group Work with Students

Extracurricular activities are usually identified by a non-credit status and lack of a formal, traditional classroom setting. These criteria, however, do not hold in all instances since activities such as music are awarded academic credits in many secondary schools, and members of varsity athletic teams are often allowed to substitute such participation for physical education classes. To complicate the matter, classroom techniques of progressive schools resemble those used in extracurricular activities.

The objectives of group activity programs are numerous. Douglass classifies the objectives by grouping the types of activities under the broad objectives of education: (1) health and safety education; (2) vocational; (3) worthy use of leisure time; (4) command of fundamental processes; (5) worthy home membership; (6) citizenship, (7) development of character.¹

The development of a comprehensive activities program geared to broad educational objectives has taken place chiefly within the past few decades. Until recently educators were loath to accept the responsibility for other than academic classroom work. Few administrators and teachers saw a pressing need for this supplementation of classroom instruction. Bode² illustrates the point in his description of his first teaching experiences when he says

Teaching that school, as I look back on it now, was simplicity itself. I assigned the lessons and heard the recitations—that was my job. The pupils learned the assignments and did the reciting—that was their job. When it was over, we knocked off and called it a day.

If my methods were simple, my job was likewise simple. There was a great deal of education going on in that community, but most of it had no relation to my school. The pupils learned a great deal about vocations, for example, but my school offered no courses in vocations.

¹ DOUGLASS, HARL R., *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, pp 210-213, Ginn and Company, Boston, 1932

² BODE, BOYD H., *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*, pp 48-49, Newson & Company, New York, 1938

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The young people learned about them at home—out in the fields and in the kitchen. They got a complete set of ideas about economics and government, but they didn't get them from me. They got them at home. It was father's prerogative to explain the tariff system and to warn the boys against the Democrats. In matters of religious beliefs the father was usually somewhat less fluent and convincing, but he did what he could, and the rest was looked after by the church and Sunday school. Manners and customs were taught and rigidly enforced by the community. In brief, all the heavy work of education was done outside the school. My task was simply to take care of certain skills and information which could not be handled very conveniently at home. Those were "the good old days" of education.

As Bode points out, most of the experiences included in a modern program of extracurricular activities, were formerly the responsibilities of the home and the community. A rural type of life grounded pupils in real situations and the school was not called upon for artificial substitutes. Roemer, Allen, and Yarnell¹ trace this shift of the responsibility to the school through three stages at the college level (1) ignoring, (2) condemning, and (3) recognizing and controlling.

OUTCOMES OF GROUP ACTIVITIES

Advisers of student activities may contribute in many ways to students' development of desirable personality traits. They may work with students in a natural social setting. Although these advisers are the same teachers who rule in the classroom, nevertheless the relaxing of the "classroom personality" brings them closer to pupils as fellow humans. We shall discuss a number of these opportunities to assist students through the medium of activities.

Some group activities provide a self-evident supplement to the classroom and to textbooks. Those activities which lend themselves best to this objective are those directly connected with a given academic subject. Latin clubs,

¹ ROEMER, JOSEPH, CHARLES FOREST ALLEN, and DOROTHY ATWOOD YARNELL, *Basic Student Activities*, pp. 2-3, Silver, Burdett & Company, New York, 1935.

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chemistry clubs, and literary organizations provide opportunity for learning and self-expression through discussions, drama, and free translating for enjoyment.

The value of well-directed group activities in educational guidance cannot be denied. The boy who couples ability with a dislike for mathematics in a physics class may be brought to academic salvation through projects in the practical phases of electricity in a physics club. Opportunity for dramatics in a German club may lead to increased interest and success in the classroom.

Group activities offer opportunities for vocational and avocational tryouts. Few students can secure part-time work experiences as a vocational tryout. The curriculum, through shop courses, home economics, and agriculture, has attempted to meet this need, but the variety of such opportunities is limited. Activities of the group type serve an important personnel function in the counseling of students needing occupational orientation.

Group activities may also help in the development of special aptitudes and interests. Some skillful instructors have demonstrated that individual differences can be dealt with even in large classes. But for most instructors the easier, and probably better, method is found in referring students to group activities which permit experimentation beyond the rigid curriculum. Competent club advisers may be able to give attention to individual students to an extent not possible in the classroom. Needless to say, these efforts should be closely coordinated with other phases of the personnel program.

Improvement in social adjustments may be achieved through an activity program. Learning to live peaceably and effectively with others may be an indirect and satisfying outcome of participation in club projects. Rough edges may be smoothed and teamwork taught by the process of socialization. The cocky boy or girl may learn a better

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technique, the timid student find and assert himself, and all students may learn to live on better terms with others. The group type of activity can contribute to this process of socialization.

In addition to the benefits received by the individual students, school morale may be improved through group activities. Athletic teams generate the desire to die for dear old Siwash among the many who cannot participate actively. The school band permits players and drum majors alike the satisfaction of bringing unity with the Rouser. Assembly programs arranged by students under supervision help greatly in building school morale and the teaching of teamwork.

Another desirable outcome of the activity program is found in the opportunity for students to develop leadership to the extent that they possess capacity for this development. All students are given opportunities to exercise whatever ability they have for the good of themselves and the student body. Those students who possess relatively little capacity for leadership are encouraged to learn to cooperate as followers, in a democracy intelligent followership is as important as is leadership. Advisers of activities have an opportunity to help students learn the problems involved in followership. They can point out the disastrous results which follow the "Mexican General" plan of action. Group activities provide an opportunity to carry out plans of action under their own leadership with the many following the leadership of the few.

In addition to the above outcomes, the program of activities has an important value for school counselors. Students with academic problems may be referred to subject matter clubs. Social maladjustments may be corrected through participation in social activities. Students with vocational problems may be referred to activity organizations for orientation and experience.

Group Work with Students

TYPES OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Let us outline some of the important types of activities and discuss their educational values from the personnel point of view.

School Assemblies.—The school assembly program is a descendant of the college chapel exercises¹. These exercises shifted gradually away from strictly religious observances to include informational and recreational aspects. In the secondary schools we find four methods of handling assembly programs: control by the administrator with the aid of the faculty, control by a faculty committee, a combination pupil-faculty committee control, supervised student control.

Roemer, Atwood, and Yarnell² state the objectives of the assembly program as

- 1 Aid in forming intelligent public opinion
- 2 Integration and unification of school life
- 3 Creation of new interests, widening and deepening of existing interests
- 4 Celebration of anniversaries important to the understanding of local and national problems
- 5 Wholesome entertainment
- 6 Opportunity for the individual's expression of interests
- 7 Development of good sportsmanship
8. Preservation and development of worthy school traditions
- 9 Group guidance objectives in meeting common problems
- 10 School morale.

The new type of assembly is becoming a widespread activity in schools. Roemer³ reports the use of assemblies in 84.5 per cent of North Central secondary schools and in 91.7 per cent of the Southern Association schools.

¹ FRETWELL, ELBERT K., *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, p. 212, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1931

² ROEMER, ATWOOD, and YARNELL, *op cit*, p. 311

³ ROEVER, JOSEPH, "Secondary Schools of Southern and of North Central Association," *School Life*, December, 1927, 13 68-69

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In 1928 Jordan summarized the trend with respect to school assemblies as follows:

Again the assembly is rapidly coming to be felt an indispensable part of the standard equipment of every school building, whereas but a few years ago it was thought necessary for the senior high school alone. Whether it be the elementary or high school, the assembly room is the place where, more than elsewhere, school spirit is developed and school morale strengthened.¹

Reed defines the function of the assembly thus:

The assembly is an educational agency of the modern school program, which is conducted by members of the school, for the purpose of intelligently unifying the life of the school into a constructive, democratic whole; where public opinion, teamwork, cooperation, and group activity so direct social education as to teach pupils to learn to do better, by doing better the regular duties of the good citizen.²

Athletics.—According to Grizzell³ athletics are one of the older forms of extracurricular activity. He refers to a baseball club in Worcester as early as 1859. Football, track, and baseball developed rapidly during the period following the Civil War. Jones cites the introduction of golf, swimming, wrestling, and hockey on a large scale about 1920.⁴

McKown contends that athletics developed as a felt need of pupils in secondary schools. He says:

The history of athletics in the high school tells the same story (without benefit of faculty) of student origin and development because of needs. In fact, certain types of athletics developed in the face of bitter opposition from the school administration. Three clearly defined

¹ JORDAN, RIVERDA HARDING, *Extra-classroom Activities in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, p. 56, Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1928.

² REED, TRUMAN G., et al., *Briefs on Extra-curricular Activities* (mimeographed), p. 9, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., 1937.

³ GRIZZELL, EMIT DUNCAN, *Origin and Development of the High School in New England before 1865*, pp. 556-559, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923.

⁴ JONES, GALEN, *Extra-curricular Activities in Relation to the Curriculum*, pp. 81-82, Teachers College Contributions to Education 667, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York, 1935.

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periods are generally discernible in the history of athletics—opposition, toleration, and cooperation.¹

With proper supervision and cooperation the athletic department of a school may aid in the social adjustments of rough-and-ready boys with Irish spirit and Polish names. Coaches of the right type have the confidence and respect of athletes and are often able to serve informally but effectively as counselors of boys who do not respond to the efforts of the official counselors.

Girls' athletics are usually included in the physical education curriculum and are intramural in character. For a time, in the Middle West, girls basketball teams competed in interscholastic games, but this practice has almost disappeared. Girls in secondary schools participate in team games between classes and in individual sports such as golf, tennis, badminton, and swimming. In some schools there is opportunity for the girl with outstanding ability to win varsity letters in a point system.

Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls.—Jordan describes these auxiliary activities as follows:

Several well-known activities originating independently of the school have involved the interests of school children to such an unusual degree that they have become auxiliary to the school program. Probably the most influential of these is the scout movement for boys and girls, known as the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, and the Camp Fire Girls. These organizations involve children between the ages of twelve and sixteen principally, and so affect pupils both in elementary and secondary schools. Their ideals are high, combining physical, mental, and moral teaching of undeniable value. In practice they frequently succeed in maintaining high morale, so that their ideals are to a large degree realized, although many cases of failure are noted.²

Before 1920 schoolteachers and school administrators were drafted into the work of these organizations. Today the

¹ MCKOWN, HARRY C., *School Clubs*, p. 29, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929.

² JORDAN, *op cit*, p. 219.

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leadership for these clubs is usually in the hands of community leaders with the school staff cooperating. These youth organizations draw their members from both the junior high school and the senior high school. The scouting movements provide opportunities for the expression of interests which might otherwise be diverted into antisocial activities. The programs of these clubs build morale, socialize members, and develop constructive habits of citizenship. For the most part personnel workers have not coordinated their counseling efforts with these programs.

Class Organizations.—There are two types of class organizations by year and by subject. The class adviser acts as an interpreter of school policy, a reference for parliamentary procedures, and an ex-officio member of class committees. The chief contribution of the adviser is through seeking guidance outcomes in the activities of the pupils in the group. If competent, the adviser carries on an informal type of individual counseling and group guidance.

The work of the adviser is most exacting in the eleventh and twelfth grades. During these years extensive projects are usually undertaken. The yearbook and class plays demand skillful supervision. MacDonald summarizes the objectives of the class organization as follows.

The class organization can correlate the work of the curriculum in many valuable ways. In matters of attitude, morale, group functions, community relations, and so on, it has proven its worth. The very structure is conducive to good work. In its elements that are closely alike in age, intellect, ability, and ideals function together. Too, there are many activities that the class organization may sponsor that cannot be stimulated nor carried out during the curriculum periods. These activities are full of potential worth and may add greatly to the sum of school interests.¹

School Clubs.—Roemer, Allen, and Yarnell list eight objectives of school clubs.

¹ MACDONALD, MARGARET ANNE, *The Class Organization and Activities*, p. vi, A. S. Barnes & Company, New York, 1931.

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1. To provide for gregarious instincts of adolescents through a well-organized and directed program
2. To lead pupils through these well-directed activities to a knowledge and appreciation of the social and educational advantages that participation in these types of school activities will bring them
3. To provide outlets for adolescent enthusiasm through a well-directed and guided social program
4. To stimulate a desirable school spirit and interest in the school's activities in general, both curricular and extracurricular.
5. To stimulate initiative in wise and capable leadership and in intelligent followership
6. To aid the pupil in finding himself and in discovering a hobby which will help him to enjoy profitably his leisure hours
7. To provide a means for universal pupil participation in the school's program of activities
8. To teach pupils to do better the many desirable school and community activities in which they participate now and in later life ¹

The school club may provide helpful experiences in social adjustments, and in some schools personnel workers organize a club for the purpose of assisting students with their problems. The variety of school clubs and the ways in which they may be used in the instructional and counseling program are limited only by the imagination and skill of the advisers.

Student Council.—The student council as an agency for self-government, like other movements in education, has its roots in the past. Records reveal² the student council in action in the Hartford Public Schools as early as 1852. In the majority of secondary schools the movement has developed since 1920.³ If the only purpose of the council were to develop a democratic method of allowing pupils a voice in school administration, the forum plan might be sufficient.⁴ Other possible values, however, may be achieved through a more formal council organization. If citizenship training is

¹ ROEMER, ALLEN, and YARNELL, *op cit*, pp 205-206

² GRIZZELL, *op cit*, pp 337-338

³ JONES, *op. cit*, p 83

⁴ COX, PHILIP W L, and JOHN CARR DUFF, *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*, pp 348-349, Prentice-Hall, Inc, New York, 1938.

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a valid objective, such training in representative government offers greater possibilities than does the model of the New England town meeting

Three outcomes of importance to personnel work are involved in the council program: (1) social training, (2) development of individual and group responsibility, and (3) practice in leadership for those best fitted to assume leadership. The council movement has grown to national proportions and will be encountered by personnel workers in most schools.

Debate.—This is perhaps the oldest of the group activities in secondary education.¹ The work is closely related to instruction in English and is included in the English curriculum in many secondary schools. The activity offers training in platform expression and intellectual growth in subjects not included in the formal curriculum.

Dramatics.—Play activities of one type or another have been a part of education for many decades. Dramatics have usefulness for vocational guidance as well as for the development of poise and social behavior, and few pupils escape the secondary schools without having strutted their brief hour upon the stage. Three types of dramatics are utilized in this activity: (1) the class play, (2) dramatic clubs, and (3) the little theater project. Personnel workers may use these activities in counseling students with problems of building up poise and self-reliance. This activity, like debate, is often part of the English curriculum. In some schools tournaments are held to give students wider experience.²

Character Building Activities.—Community activities supplement the school program through the Hi-Y, Girl

¹ ROBERTS, ALEXANDER CRIPPEN, and EDGAR MARION DRAPER, *Extraclass and Intramural Activities in High Schools*, pp. 2-28, D. C. Heath & Company, New York, 1928.

² KRAMER, MAGDALENE E., *Dramatic Tournaments in Secondary Schools*, pp. 1-2, Teachers College Contributions to Education 685, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York, 1936.

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Reserves, Knights of Columbus, and De Molay. The objectives of these organizations center in the development of Christian character, a sound mind in a sound body, and ethical behavior. In some school systems members of the faculty serve as sponsors. An important value of these programs is the opportunity to draw school and community agencies into a closer relationship in facilitating student adjustments.

Music.—Activities of a musical nature are numerous and have had a long history in the secondary school. Choirs, glee clubs, bands, and orchestras are found in schools of all sizes. In many institutions academic credit is granted for these activities. Participation in district, state, and national contests serve as an incentive to students with musical interests. The personnel outcomes are chiefly avocational, with vocational and educational values for certain pupils. But advisers of musical organizations may assist in counseling students who desire to become trained for a musical career.

Publications.—In the large school, students find ample opportunities for participation in a number of interesting creative projects. Weekly newspapers, occasional literary magazines, the yearbook, and school publicity offer experiences for large numbers. These activities are frequently under the direction of the English department, and in many instances are part of the curriculum. Through publications activities, basic skills may be learned, better language usage may be developed, business experience of a vocational nature may be gained, and contact with life situations in the community is made possible. Because of the vocational nature of much of the work, the counselor may seek very close cooperation with sponsors in charge of the publications.

ADVISERS AND SPONSORS OF ACTIVITIES

Whom do we describe as group workers in the personnel program? At the present time the answer is—everyone on

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the school staff Teachers, principal, counselors, and even the superintendent serve as advisers and sponsors of the many student organizations outlined above. Athletic and musical clubs require specialized training in sponsors, but other organizations make no such demands. As a result teachers are often drafted for this disagreeable chore and perform their duties in a perfunctory manner. Few of the desirable outcomes of activities result from this practice of appointing untrained and indifferent advisers.

School administrators, recognizing the value of student activities, require that teachers include group functions in their work. Two procedures are usually followed (1) group activities are assigned to those who are young and willing to work, or (2) every teacher is made responsible for an activity regardless of ability or willingness. Both methods yield less desirable results than might be expected from more appropriate administration. The first method, assuming competence, often produces ineffective supervision because of the adviser's inexperience. Under the second plan the outcomes are similar to those resulting from indiscriminate assignment of homeroom duties. Larger schools often employ teachers trained in the supervision of activities. Sometimes teachers are given the title of dean and function as counselors as well as supervisors of activities. In other schools the teaching load is reduced to provide sufficient time for this responsibility.

Small schools with few teachers cannot make the necessary program adjustments. Consequently the principal sometimes serves as sponsor for student council activities, assemblies, and allied group projects which affect the total student body.

The contributions of the advisers of activities to the total personnel program depend upon the individual, his experience and training. Frequently these advisers perform their work independently of the counseling program. While

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activity programs are beneficial to many students, they may be made more effective when they are closely coordinated with other phases of the personnel program. In the following paragraphs we discuss some of the means of coordinating activities with these other personnel activities.

The activity adviser is able to learn many important facts about students and to add to the counselor's effectiveness by reporting these observations. Anecdotes reported by the adviser would be a valuable supplement to those of the teacher because the situations peculiar to group activities make possible more valid observations of the student's behavior in a life situation. The model pupil in Algebra 1 may behave quite differently in athletic activities. The hard-working student in the Bird Club may be the dull-eyed dreamer in English. The unconquerable hero of the gridiron may appear as an awkward fumbling boy in the machine shop. The playground bully may be a shrinking violet in the principal's office. Where these personality changes occur in different social situations, a record of the anecdotal type would be valuable to counselors who must see the whole pattern of personality.

Other functions of the activity adviser may be mentioned. Counselors frequently need to arrange social and group experiences for students as part of a program designed to lead to more adequate personality development. Through the cooperation of advisers, such students may be inducted personally into club activities and thereby gain more in desirable experiences. In some cases these advisers may utilize their relationships in activities to counsel informally in a more effective manner than is possible for the counselor in his office. For these reasons the activity program should be supervised as part of the personnel program and not as a mere administrative detail attached through tradition to the principal's office.

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SUMMARY

School counselors have been slow to take full advantage of the possible contributions of activities to student adjustments. Coordination is not often attempted and few contributions from other teachers have been sought by counselors to assist students with their personal problems. Trained supervisors of activities are needed to utilize more fully the educational possibilities of this part of the school's curriculum. The mere existence of group activities does not necessarily guarantee desirable outcomes. At the same time overemphasis of and overparticipation in activities must be guarded against lest they defeat the efforts of teachers and counselors. These activities must provide for students' needs not taken care of in the teaching curriculum.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. Why are extracurricular activities an important part of the personnel program?
2. Name the possible personnel functions of activity sponsors.
3. Criticize extracurricular activities as a method of developing leadership.
4. Do activity advisers need special training?
5. What types of students' problems may be dealt with or alleviated through participation in activities?
6. Outline an extracurricular program designed to supplement classroom instruction and individual counseling.

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CHAPTER V

Student Personnel Work and the Curriculum

IN CHAP I we reviewed a number of educational movements which prepared the way for the development of modern student personnel work. Among these we included philosophies of secondary education which determine what shall be included in the instructional program of the school and what view toward students shall be taken by teachers. We suggested that the nature and scope of the personnel program was, in large part, determined by these forces.

In the present chapter we continue this discussion in terms of the objectives and content of the classroom curriculum. We do this not because of any belief that the curriculum is the province of personnel workers, but as an introduction to the next chapter on the personnel functions of classroom teachers. If we understand what it is that teachers attempt to do by means of classroom instruction, we shall be able to see more clearly the role to be played by teachers in the personnel program. We shall, therefore, approach the problems of curriculum making from the point of view of the personnel worker and not as the school administrator approaches problems associated with the curriculum.

CHANGING OBJECTIVES IN CURRICULUM MAKING

The curriculum is a tool of education used in schools for preserving past culture, maintaining the present society that supports the schools, teaching basic skills for living in contemporary society, developing socially desirable attitudes and ideals, and providing experiences useful in meeting adult situations. Difficulties in determining the content of the curriculum appear to center in the scope of what shall be

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done although much tilting at windmills occurs in regard to the labels to be used. It is possible to have a model curriculum coupled with ineffective instruction just as we can find examples of inadequate curriculums in schools which are remarkably effective.

The history of secondary education shows a slow shift of emphasis in curriculum objectives. Some of the early academies directed education largely toward preparation for college, an extremely remote goal except for the select few who were to receive formal education. Following this period a slow transition led to education for participation in life after adulthood had been reached. This goal was within the life expectancy of the students being educated, but still remote and reserved for a small portion of the population. For the majority of adolescents of secondary school age, contemporary education has directed the curriculum toward the goals of present use and early entry into community life.

The curriculum of the secondary schools in the United States is being challenged from many quarters. The challenge originates, to a marked extent, in the increasingly heterogeneous school population and the social and economic changes which have caused the shift in the characteristics of students. Schools are asked to provide, often with very limited finances, a curriculum which will interest and profit youth ranging from the dull-normal to the genius. These students are forced to share the same classroom, under the same teacher and at the same time. In meeting this problem, a primary consideration would appear to be the quality, training, and experience of the teacher rather than what we call the content of the course of study.

Some Social Changes Affecting the Curriculum.¹—No single cause can be found for the socioeconomic changes in

¹ Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Parts I and II, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1926

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our society Many factors have played important roles, including the passing of the frontier and free land, technological improvements in the production of goods and services, and the recent effect of a nationalism which insists upon self-sufficiency for national states. We feel the impact of these changes, and we recognize that secondary schools must do something to meet them But we are not at all sure of the direction in which the schools will go or should go in the matter of curricular change. Let us outline some of the socioeconomic phenomena which no doubt will have a bearing upon these curricular changes.

A number of influential social changes are now understood As a nation we can now produce more of various goods than can be used under our present system of distribution Our means of production operate at less than maximum output because of low purchasing power among consumers. The need for goods and services is increasing, and the means of production are adequate. But without purchasing power the consumer and the producer alike suffer

Leisure time has been increased for many types of workers. Shorter working days and weeks should result in a raised cultural level Youth, who a generation or less ago would have been busily supporting families, find themselves still in school because of economic conditions¹ Consequently school and community find themselves faced with a dilemma as to how to meet the educational and leisure problems of young and old alike

New methods of industrial production make difficult the school's task of providing a vocational curriculum which will train students for work in the same way that an older apprentice and crafts-shop system could² Society, perhaps,

¹ BELL, HOWARD M., *Youth Tell Their Story*, American Council on Education, Washington, D C, 1938

² NORTON, THOMAS L., *Education for Work*, The Regents' Inquiry, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc, New York, 1938

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cannot afford the expense of practical and specific industrial training for semiskilled work. And yet we face the demand of parents that youth emerge from secondary schools prepared to do something. Even when the curriculum can include specific craft training, schools are handicapped because of opposition from organized labor which must protect its membership from the inroads of new workers who might affect the labor market.

A desire for security is replacing the "rags-to-riches" incentive of rugged individualism. As we have moved from the period in which the Napoleon of industry was the leading figure in national life, the lessons of the depression have placed more emphasis upon cooperative enterprise together with collective and individual security. This point of view is being reflected in teaching practice and may well be incorporated into the secondary-school curriculum.

CURRICULUM ISSUES THAT AFFECT STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

Many of the curriculum issues stated by the Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, have a direct bearing upon the objectives of personnel work. These issues are important not only in terms of decisions as to what shall be included in the course of study, but also in respect to what personnel services shall be provided by the school. We shall review briefly some of these issues.¹

Shall education seek to retain all students in school as long as they wish to remain, or shall we transfer them to other agencies?—If we retain all secondary-school pupils in the schools as long as they wish to remain, the curriculum for the older group should be based upon the needs of this group. Some students will need a general, cultural education; others

¹ BRIGGS, THOMAS H., *Secondary Education*, p. 193, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933

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will desire vocational training and experience; for a smaller number a college preparatory course of study will be needed. If we retain older pupils without attempting to change the curriculum in line with their greater mental and physical maturity, the personnel worker will face even greater problems than today.

If the issue is decided in favor of those who would transfer students to other community agencies, the problem remains as to "whom we shall pass where." Even under such a policy the need for individual work with pupils, while they are in school, would be little diminished since the distribution involved at the time of graduation would be of vital importance to society and the individuals concerned.

Shall secondary education provide a common curriculum for all, or should there be curriculum provision for individual differences?—Personnel workers would answer in favor of a differentiated curriculum. But if the decision went against them, they would be forced to work for flexibility within the limits imposed, in order that the individual might achieve the best possible results under existing conditions. In view of the widespread philosophy which places supreme value upon the worth of the individual, any attempt at regimentation, intellectual or social, would meet with widespread opposition.

Shall secondary education include vocational training or be restricted to general education?—Guidance workers would probably favor some form of vocational training in the schools. If general and vocational education were separated, the vocational guidance movement would require a new type of worker. But it is doubtful if students and parents would accept general education which did not include much material of a vocational nature.¹

¹ SPAULDING, FRANCIS T, *High School and Life*, The Regents' Inquiry, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc, New York, 1938

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Shall secondary education seek adjustment to present social practice, or shall it seek to reconstruct society?¹— Personnel workers, as a group, have as their immediate consideration the adjustment of the individual to conditions and problems as they must be faced today. But it is improbable that most counselors could function effectively in adjusting pupils to conditions “just around the corner.” In the student’s mind educational problems are and should be related to the system as it exists now as well as to future developments. Financial difficulties must be attacked from the setting of the present economic fabric of the community. However much we desire social change or might agree with a philosophy which considers teachers as the leaders in changing society, the everyday duties of the personnel worker must deal, but not exclusively, with today’s problems.

TEACHERS AND THE CURRICULUM

Teachers in schools committed to traditional curriculums must be inventive if they are to perform the important counseling functions charged to them. In many states students must meet examinations based upon a state course of study as well as the standards and requirements of the school system. Unfortunately the teachers’ professional success depends in many instances upon the test scores obtained by their pupils. With these pressures it is difficult to censure teachers for the tendency to become drill masters. However, even with these handicaps, progress can be made in various ways.

Individualization of instruction must be attempted. Obviously, the lecture and question-and-answer techniques

¹ COUNTS, GEORGE S., *Dare the Schools Build a New Social Order?*, The John Day Company, Inc., New York, 1932

EVERETT, SAMUEL, “Modernizing the American High School,” *A Challenge to Secondary Education*, pp. 285-315, D Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1935

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will be largely abandoned. Individualization will be most feasible through some type of laboratory approach; practically all subject matter can be treated in this way.¹ Some important phases of this laboratory method of individualization include the following

1. Adaptation of the level of instructional material to the individual in terms of his aptitudes, interests, and experiences
2. An adequate room library available for students' use
3. An informal, but not chaotic, atmosphere in the classroom
4. Provision for students to learn at their own pace without malingering
5. Definite meaningful outlines, instructions, and testing techniques
6. The teacher serving as adviser and consultant, not as a lecturer or taskmaster
7. Records, other than report-card marks, kept up to date and easily accessible
8. Close cooperation with counselors and specialists
9. Arrangements which will break the formal time element of the semester or quarter
10. Supervised and directed study in the classroom
11. Prevention of, rather than punishment for, infractions of rules

Change of method is one promising way in which to attack the problem of mass education. The best methods, however, cannot be fully effective within the single period which accompanies a subject matter curriculum. A forty-five minute or one-hour period each day permits only a limited attack upon the subject before the next wave of pupils rolls into the room. Mackenzie describes a promising experiment conducted in several California secondary schools to correct this restriction.² The core or basic course is conducted for

¹ APPEL, F. S., *Write What You Mean: A Manual of Correspondence*, Henry Holt & Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

THAYER, V. T., "Secondary Education as Orientation," *A Challenge to Secondary Education*, pp. 75-104, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1935.

² MACKENZIE, GORDON N., "Core-curriculum Developments in California," *The School Review*, Part I, May, 1939, 47:337-351, Part II, June, 1939, 47:439-453.

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two hours each day with the same teacher. The course is centered around personal and broad social problems. Of the teacher's role Mackenzie says:

As has been inferred the role of the teacher in many classrooms visited was very different from what one might find in the average secondary school. Instead of a purveyor of subject matter, the teacher was a guidance worker, carefully studying the needs of boys and girls and aiding to provide the experiences required for developing competency in democratic living.¹

The description given is not that of a school with a traditional curriculum. Rather does it illustrate the possibility of giving students a better acquaintanceship with a student-minded teacher through longer daily contacts.

Another condition makes difficult the teacher's attempts to become a teacher-counselor. Minimum and uniform achievement requirements in traditional subject matter cannot be defended in the light of the heterogeneous population which the secondary school now serves. If adequate longitudinal and cross-section case histories are kept for each pupil, the teacher has more than a fair idea as to how the student measures up to college preparatory standards. Some provision other than failing marks must be made for those pupils who do not possess sufficient "bookish" intelligence to master a subject under present teaching methods and materials. Adaptations of multiple-track methods offer a technique to provide for such students if the curriculum does not permit flexibility and range of content.² The problem of what to do with this type of students is suggested by Lindquist:

There are two kinds of failures. First, there is the failure to achieve a task that has been arbitrarily set for one, in the planning of which one has had no part, to whose goal one has never given consent, the

¹ *Ibid*, p. 351

² MAGUIRE, EDWARD RANDALL, *The Group Study Plan. A Teaching Technique Based on Pupil Participation*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1928

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purpose of which one does not understand. If the school sets such tasks, it is the school which fails, and not the child

There is, on the other hand, the failure to accomplish a task that is within one's powers, a task whose purpose one understands, and to whose goal one has given inner consent, a task in whose planning one has participated. The results of such failure should fall squarely upon one's own shoulders ¹

Few modern teachers demand the discipline of former days. But one still finds administrators who demand perfect order and "brown-study" attention. They fail to understand that an informal, workshop atmosphere for at least part of the classroom time can be fitted into the most formal of subjects with consequent increases in students' learning.

Another condition adding to the teacher-counselor's difficulties is caused by the semester-credit system. State courses of study and college entrance requirements have saddled the secondary school with a curriculum which demands a specified number of hours of classroom instruction each week, extending over a period of one-half year, one year, or two years. Such an arrangement is administratively convenient, and the attendant bookkeeping is neat and orderly. The defense of the practice, however, stops at this point. To be sure, time and credit units have helped standardize school offerings, but these units mean little unless we have some method by which we can equate the quality of teaching, ideational and attitudinal gains, improvement in factual information, and adjustment of pupils to the particular school environment and form a judgment concerning the degree to which the final results meet the objectives set by the school. A statement by Marshall and Hahn raises some questions which need to be answered:

Because of tradition and convenience, schools still work upon the basis that all pupils who start a course at a given time either reach a

¹LINDQUIST, R. D., "Essentials for a Secondary School," *A Challenge to Secondary Education*, pp. 140-141, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1935

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goal or fail. By some magic formula this goal is reached in a certain number of days. The extremely bright student and the passing, but dull, student have no official recognition in regard to differences in rate of progress. Until schools are organized to allow each student to go at his optimum rate, regardless of time limits, it will be difficult to make allowances for individual differences. Just why it takes three years for all students to complete senior high school, no one has ever bothered to explain ¹

A practical method of meeting the objections to the semester-time system involves organizing subject matter in units and determining progress upon mastery of the units. In such a system it makes little difference whether a pupil completes a course three weeks in advance of the group or six weeks behind. When mastery of the course content, at a level in keeping with the abilities of the individual pupil, is complete, the bookkeeping procedures can operate as before. To fail a boy or girl because he is slow in learning is much like the experience of taking a class on a hike. Those who reach the objective by noon are allowed to eat lunch and enjoy themselves. Those who are late because of sore feet, indigestion, or other causes are sent home and must attempt the trip again the next day, making certain that they reach the grounds by noon on the second trip.

Another equally unreasonable condition results from the practice of requiring all students to "serve time" in the classroom without regard for present accomplishment. There are instances in many schools where boys and girls who write, read, and speak a foreign language are required to "serve time" in order to obtain book credit for skills they already possess. Few schools will reduce time sentences on the basis of pretesting results. A student may demonstrate mastery of history beyond the 75th percentile of pupils completing the course and yet be forced to keep administrative records uniform by dawdling through the requisite

¹ MARSHALL, J. E., and M. E. HAHN, *An Explanation of the Student Personnel Program*, p. 9, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn. (St. Paul Department of Education Publication), September, 1937.

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classwork. Under better educational conditions student-minded teachers can devise methods for motivating these students to explore unknown corners of a field of knowledge and thereby release them from boredom resulting from class routine with already familiar material.

Although the teacher-counselor cannot discharge all personnel functions, he should be familiar with the interpretation and use of certain types of records. Admitting the difficulty of knowing the 150 to 200 children who pass through the teacher's hands each semester, we can still do more than is attempted at present. A teacher should know the ability levels within each class and recognize as individuals those pupils who are found at both extremes of the academic curve. Past scholastic record, scores on intelligence and achievement tests, weakness as disclosed by diagnostic tests, eye and ear defects, health handicaps—all should be understood in relationship to the student and the subject in which he is enrolled. The most rigid curriculum becomes more effective when used by teachers who utilize every opportunity to make their methods flexible and individualized.

GROUP WORKERS AND THE CURRICULUM

Group activities, usually called extracurricular activities, are an added responsibility of the instructional staff. As has been indicated in the chapter concerned with these personnel workers, they participate in and supervise nonclassroom pupil experiences which do not receive recognition on traditional report cards. Coordination of extracurricular activities with the personnel program of the school is a recent movement. By label these activities are outside the formal curriculum, and yet we recognize them as of primary importance in building pupil and school morale and creating interests which influence classroom learning.

The progressive education movement utilizes the undeniable motivating force of projects as a method to promote the

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educative process. The extracurriculum of the traditional school becomes the curriculum of the ultramodern secondary school. The two chief criticisms of this coordination of the two learning situations are that such a program is suited best for elementary grades, and that such situations in secondary schools tend to be artificial and sometimes as meaningless to the student as the traditional subject matter methods are charged with being. Inclusion of extracurricular experiences in the course of study has not been particularly widespread as yet. Harap and Bayne report only 17 activity curriculums in 317 curriculums investigated, and of these 17, only 3 were in secondary schools.¹

Chief contributions of group activities to the curriculum should include

1. Provision for interests not provided for in classrooms
2. Remedial work with social and citizenship problems
3. Supplementation of subject matter
4. Motivation transferred to curricular activities
5. Tryout of ambitions in a real-life situation

Extracurricular activities will contribute to personnel work only when the experiences are meaningful and interesting to the students taking part. There is little need to specify that the person in charge of such activities must be more than a monitor or chaperon. Often a project of questionable value in itself becomes worth while because of the teacher who sponsors it.

PERSONNEL SPECIALISTS AND THE CURRICULUM

The various personnel specialists are only indirectly connected with the curriculum. Doctors, dentists, psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, psychologists, psychometrists, and school nurses are concerned with assisting individual pupils in order that they may profit from educational experiences.

¹ Joint Committee on Curriculum, *The Changing Curriculum*, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

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The clinical workers, as is true of counselors, are interested in the problems of individual pupils. These specialists desire that the curriculum shall provide the best training and experience possible for youth, but their immediate concern is not with developing a new course of study. They are, of course, concerned with the methods used in any course of study. Clinical workers must understand the curriculum because much of their effort is applied in preparing individuals for the proper course of study. Because of their point of view, however, secondary education would profit if these specialists were more widely involved in curriculum building and reorganization.

ADMINISTRATORS AND THE CURRICULUM

Administrators determine the course of study.¹ Curriculum reorganization between 1920 and 1925 was a responsibility of administrators in 83 per cent of the schools. Superintendents assumed this responsibility in 30 per cent of the schools and principals in 53 per cent. Teachers and other workers in education have played minor parts in curriculum making as compared to administrators and curriculum experts. Nevertheless, in the final analysis it is the teacher who determines what is presented from day to day and the methods by which materials are presented. The administrator is a key person in making school offerings effective for pupils. His importance is determined more by delegation of authority and attitude than upon active participation in counseling.

The point of view of the administrator determines the scope and type of counseling permitted within the school's curriculum. If the administrator's outlook is limited to vocational guidance, curriculums will not be supplemented by the services available to students in institutions with

¹ CASWELL, HOLLIS L., and DOAK S. CAMPBELL, *Curriculum Development*, Chaps. I-IV, American Book Company, New York, 1935.

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comprehensive programs. Teachers and supervisors are governed, directly and indirectly, by the attitude of superiors. If a principal makes the statement that no one can teach effectively while sitting down, his faculty will tend to stand. If a superintendent does not believe in visual aids, there will be a tendency on the part of teachers to dispense with them. If all pupils are made identical in abilities by administrative edict, individual differences will play a minor role in classroom teaching.

Examples of the importance of administrative viewpoint are plentiful. In one large school system the administrative view was expressed that student failures could not exist. Pupils could not fail, because a teacher was admitting incompetence when she gave the impossible grade. The result is not difficult to foresee. In another large system a superintendent, with little understanding of personnel work, decided that all teachers were qualified counselors. By a stroke of the pen he saved the taxpayers large sums of money and gave his school system some 2,000 "counselors." By such viewpoints the administrator makes personnel work difficult and handicaps effective work with the curriculum.

The administrator is responsible for the grading system in many schools. Diploma awards and certification are closely related with the grading system and flexibility of the curriculum. In view of this relationship, the administrator will facilitate the development of an effective personnel program through his efforts to improve methods of judging and measuring student's achievement.¹ Tibbetts's thirteen criteria of a reporting system raise fundamental questions about teachers' marks. The relationship between these criteria and personnel work is evident. The thirteen criteria are: (1) involves a minimum of clerical work, (2) is a system to which the community is educated; (3) promotes understanding between

¹ CORRE, MARY P., "An Adjusted Curriculum for the Dull-normal Pupil," *Occupations*, October, 1938, 17: 34-39.

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the home and the school, (4) informs of progress—physical, social, and mental, (5) expresses in simple terms the philosophy underlying service rendered by the schools, (6) includes adjustments to school life as well as school subjects, (7) sets up standards of value of work for its own sake rather than for external rewards; (8) is suitable to the student's age level, (9) is understandable to the child, (10) includes objective and subjective material; (11) facilitates early and proper adjustment of the child to his new situation, (12) considers the child as an individual as well as a member of the group; (13) indicates scholastic achievement, individual adjustment, and social growth ¹

Personnel workers in secondary schools discover the cause of many students' problems in the faulty grading system. Administrators can aid in the elimination of certain problems and add to the effectiveness of the course of study by recognition of the need for improvement of the grading system.

The flexibility of the curriculum is largely an administrative responsibility. From the personnel point of view, some rules were made to be broken, and the administrator can make his curriculum more flexible by permitting and even encouraging personnel workers to change the shape of the curriculum to fit individual cases. An example of undesirable inflexibility is the practice which permits a ninth-grade pupil to register for a program at the beginning of the school year and then refuses to permit changes in that program for any reason. In certain schools a student is allowed, without counseling, to bind himself irrevocably for one year to something he knows little about, as long as it is administratively convenient. This practice cannot be classed under the function of adjusting the school to individual differences. Flexibility of curriculum is important in all phases of the personnel program. Solutions to certain problems lie in the

¹ TIBBETTS, VINAL H., "Determining the Character of a Reporting System," *Progressive Education*, May, 1936, 13 355

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ability to use the curriculum in ways not contained in the legalized course of study. Cases are encountered which could not possibly have been foreseen by the curriculum maker.

The administrator employs and supervises the workers who make the curriculum function in the lives of students. Standards of professional training are slowly rising, and with the present oversupply of persons holding certificates, discrimination is possible. The curriculum can be only as effective as are the teachers who translate it to the students. More and more teachers are receiving graduate training in special fields which are essential to a well-rounded educational program. English teachers may be trained and used in programs of remedial reading. Social science and psychology majors often hold the key to courses in methods of learning. The majority of secondary schools will find it necessary to have their faculty "double in brass," carrying responsibilities for the curriculum, extracurricular activities, and counseling. Administrators must keep in mind the necessity of providing competent personnel for the functions of all three types of activity. The personnel program will supplement the course of study to the extent that qualified people are provided to furnish such supplementation.

SCHOOL COUNSELORS AND THE CURRICULUM

The work of counselors will be discussed in Chap. VIII. The function of these workers includes assisting with individual adjustments and assisting students in arriving at decisions. For the most part they will be concerned with students who cannot be adequately dealt with through the course of study and whose problems are not necessarily of such a nature as to demand attention of the specialists. Flexibility of curriculums, richness of school and community resources will determine the effectiveness of the counselor's use of the curriculum in aiding individual students.

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PERSONNEL WORKERS AND A NEW CURRICULUM

Before attempting to forecast the direction in which curricular development will occur, it may be well to consider the future of personnel work itself. The teachers whom we have called teacher-counselors have been so designated because of their emphasis upon student-centered teaching. Present agitation to raise standards in teacher-training institutions may well produce a new type of teacher who will perform many of the duties assigned to the instructional type of personnel worker. When this point is reached, what is now called group guidance and much that is orientation to new school situations will become instruction in a flexible curriculum. The classroom curriculum will then be directed toward the same objective (well-rounded development of students) as is the personnel program. Teaching and counseling will then be accepted as two means to the same end. The term counselor will, in all probability, be reserved to persons with professional training who meet well-defined specifications as determined by state or national certification agencies. The counselors will find their work, as it now exists, divided between better-qualified teachers and professional counselors, leaving little room for those who are neither fish nor fowl.¹

Group workers may discover that much that is done in the extracurriculum today will be unnecessary tomorrow because of inclusion of these activities in the curriculum. Their specific duties will be part of tomorrow's good teaching. Group work will benefit directly with a rise of competence in the ranks of instructional workers.

Personnel specialists probably will be more in demand as the value of a complete personnel program becomes clear.

¹ PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN, "The Role of the Counselor," in *The Challenge of Education* by the Stanford University Education Faculty, pp 357-367, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

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Specialists will, in many parts of the country, find themselves serving larger political units than the present city or school system. Counties and combinations of counties may find economy and efficiency in pooling the services of specialists in "area clinics." A trend may develop which will bring together the workers of present schools and community agencies.

The curriculum will not necessarily go through a sudden, violent change. Trends are now apparent which indicate that emphasis upon college preparation will wane. The junior college is taking over two years of the work now being done by colleges and universities. General and vocational curriculums will be needed for those students who will enter the vocations after graduation. These curriculums will require assistance in transferring into community life, and more instructional efforts will be devoted to core and life-area courses which combine materials from separate subjects. Such a curriculum development would demand more reliable methods in the distribution of pupils. For students who will need training in academic and professional specialization, early identification and counseling will be necessary.

Community resources will be used as part of the course of study. Part-time school and part-time work may be increasingly popular. Recreational and activity programs may become community projects for both adults and students and use both school and nonschool resources.

The need for nonprofessional training of students may be met by means of a curriculum much less standardized and more influenced by local conditions and needs. Economy may dictate that these curriculums be offered in fewer centers with better facilities. Funds now spent in many units could be reallocated to support students in a few central schools.

The federal government may eventually go much further in equalizing educational opportunities, and thus exercise a standardizing influence upon certain phases of the curricu-

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lum. This influence probably would take the form of ensuring certain common experiences for all students in some educational activities. Methods of teaching and specific content of courses would remain a local responsibility.

The development of a nation-wide job-forecasting service and more adequate occupational information may profoundly influence vocational education and vocational guidance. Present apprentice and trade-school practices may be absorbed or coordinated with the public-school system, in which case agreements with labor unions would need to be made. Proprietary schools, resident and correspondence, may be much more closely regulated by state departments of education to prevent exploitation of students and to ensure that each student's educational experiences brought him to adulthood prepared to become economically self-supporting.

SUMMARY

We have discussed the classroom application of the curriculum in terms of personnel workers. We have emphasized ways in which existing curriculums may be utilized by teachers to provide students with needed experiences. The determination of the content of the curriculum is a responsibility of administrators. The day-to-day content of courses is a concern of teachers. The development of individualized methods of instruction involves the work of counselors and other personnel specialists.

The objectives and issues of secondary education are, however, a concern of all educational workers. For this reason we discussed some of the current issues with special emphasis upon their implications for personnel work. For example, separation of vocational and general education, differentiated curriculums versus a single course of study, length of student residence in secondary schools, and the function of schools in changing the social order have been considered with reference to the work of counselors.

Student Personnel Work and the Curriculum

From the viewpoint of the personnel worker, the following phases of curriculum construction must be stressed the curriculum must be supplemented by defensible grading systems, differences in rate of learning must be recognized and evaluated, several methods of promotion and credit awarding must be provided, and more time must be provided for classroom and counseling relationships between students and counselors. These needed improvements are of equal importance to the content of the curriculum

Some trends in education have significance for personnel work Attempts to equalize educational opportunities through functional curriculums offer increased possibilities for counseling students Governmental aids may provide better facilities for students now lost in a mass system of education or in underprivileged communities. Specialized vocational training may be provided through cooperation in larger political units Governmental regulations may in time curb the unethical practices of certain proprietary schools With the development of these significant changes in the school, personnel work may be freed from some of the restrictive conditions which prevent the individualization of mass education. Moreover, and of major importance, the classroom curriculum and personnel work will be directed toward the same objective of education Teaching and counseling will become supplementary rather than antagonistic methods of assisting students to develop maturity.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. What should be the content of a model curriculum?
2. What methods and courses of information should be used in developing a curriculum?
3. To what extent should faculty members, other than administrators, be included in curriculum planning and reorganization?
4. What effect upon the outcomes of the curriculum has the school's method of registration?
5. What methods may be used by a teacher to minimize the effects on students of an inappropriate curriculum?

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6. Should a counselor or a school psychologist criticize teaching methods which are causing a disproportionate number of student failures or other problems?

7. What types of data should be collected to discover the outcomes of a school's curriculum?

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CHAPTER VI

Personnel Work in the Classroom

MUCH controversy rages around the question of what part teachers should play in aiding pupils toward better adjustments. At one extreme of this controversy we find those who contend that the teacher, because of his intimate contacts with students, is capable of performing all necessary personnel functions. At the other extreme stand the defenders of the specialist, who assume that lack of professional training permanently bars a teacher from participation in personnel work. In spite of the great variety of personnel functions, these single-minded protagonists continue to describe the proverbial elephant in terms of single, isolated parts of the whole. Homeroom teachers, vocational counselors, school psychologists, remedial teachers, placement counselors, and classroom teachers—these have each been called *the* personnel worker. In ignorance of the variety of workers and functions necessary in a personnel program designed to aid the *whole* student, a single type of personnel work with a single technique is developed to assist all types of students with many kinds of problems. A study of any one student will, in contrast, reveal that all types of workers are necessary in an adequate personnel program.

This latter principle is basic to our discussion. In previous chapters we have outlined the functions of several types of personnel workers. In the present chapter we give special attention to the personnel functions which teachers discharge in the classroom. Our discussion will center around the use

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of personnel techniques (1) in regular classes; (2) in the homeroom; and (3) in group guidance classes. In Chap. VIII we shall discuss the personnel duties of the teacher outside of his classroom instruction, that is, as a part-time counselor of students, using the method of personal interviews rather than instructional methods in connection with the learning of subject matter.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AS A PERSONNEL WORKER

In cooperative human enterprise duties are delegated to those individuals who can best perform them. Champions of the classroom teacher as a personnel worker have based their discussions on certain strengths inherent in the position of the teacher. A review of these strengths will reveal the role of the teacher in a comprehensive personnel program. In Chap. VIII we shall discuss at length the personnel functions of teacher-counselors who, in addition to school counselors and school psychologists, advise students through the method of *personal interviews*. In this section we point out a few of the most important techniques used by teachers to individualize instruction as a part of regular classroom work.

The classroom teacher, more than any other worker in secondary education, has an *opportunity* to establish intimate contacts with students, a necessary condition in personnel work. Despite heavy class schedules and large pupil enrollments, students *seek* assistance from teachers with regard to personal problems.¹ This opportunity for assisting students, however, is not open to teachers who lack personalities which make students desire to consult with them. To grasp his opportunity for personnel work, the teacher must first be qualified by personality and training. The teacher who has established proper rapport with students will

¹ SHAW, CHARLES R., "Teacher-pupil Conferences—Purpose and Initiation," *The School Review*, January, 1938, 46 37-43

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be consulted in regard to problems other than those directly connected with subject matter.

In many schools a practice is followed of assigning students to teachers who serve throughout the school year as program advisers. Where these advisers also teach their advisees in classes, they are able to utilize personal information, collected in advisory interviews, in adaptation of instruction to the learning problems of these same students. Over the period of the student's residence, this adviser collects a fund of information potentially useful to all personnel workers.

The teacher's usefulness, however, is not limited to serving as a program adviser. All teachers have unusual opportunities to observe students in a variety of situations and under the conditions in which learning, social, and other problems occur. The development of the anecdotal method has placed a valuable tool in the hands of those teachers who desire to use their observations in the counseling of students. In a later chapter we shall describe in detail this anecdotal method; at this point let us mention some of its essential features to illustrate some of the classroom functions of teachers.

At the present time these teachers are giving much more time to observing pupils' conduct, recording these concrete observations in the form of anecdotes, and collating and interpreting them periodically, than they formerly gave to testing and examining their pupils. Although the writing of anecdotes was at first regarded as impossible and of doubtful value in guidance work, the great majority of the teachers are now enthusiastic about this aspect of their work, and regard it as an indispensable element in both their current teaching work and in their long-term guidance work, which now involves formulation and modification of individual goals—personal and social, as well as academic.¹

Teachers who function as personnel workers in the classroom are not mere recorders of discipline infringements, but

¹ WOOD, BEN D, "The Major Strategy of Guidance," *Educational Record*, October, 1934, 15 419-444

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are counselors who seek information which will aid students to understand themselves. Isolated incidents of behavior are combined with other case data to give a complete picture of the student and his needs. Flashes of temper, social-mindedness, discourtesy, honesty, and other incidents of behavior are thus made meaningful when combined with information collected by other personnel workers.

In addition to collecting important counseling information, the teacher performs other personnel functions. Through his classroom relationships with students, the teacher sets the tone or morale of the school. Teachers may help students to develop desirable attitudes toward themselves and other persons. All of us remember teachers whose competence, together with cheerfulness, sympathy, and understanding, has made a lasting impression upon us. To persons such as these we took our troubles and asked for assistance. A school staffed with teachers of this type has an effective staff of personnel workers able to perform some of the most important personnel functions. In many cases this type of counseling is sufficient, in other instances it is but one of a number of personnel methods to be used in counseling students.

Over against these opportunities of the classroom teacher to serve as a personnel worker, we must list some of the weaknesses of teachers. Some of these weaknesses are beyond the power of teachers to correct. For example, one cannot place all blame on teachers who have developed into efficient drill-masters, watchdogs of the curriculum. These teachers may have had natural tendencies of this sort reinforced by the teaching they received in colleges of education. Superintendents may have taught them to teach the formal curriculum in a rigid manner by means of power to withhold advancement unless all students measured up to an arbitrary standard.

Whether we blame them or not, we must recognize that some teachers cannot become effective counselors because

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of their teaching methods. Others are competent in filling pupils with the required amount of factual drill material but are not student-minded. Temperament interferes with personnel work in the case of other instructors, such teachers are not always amenable to constructive criticism.¹ Perhaps only a small proportion of our present teaching staffs are qualified for counseling. Such a condition will not be corrected until teachers' colleges select trainees on the basis of personality as well as intelligence. Until such selection takes place, we cannot assume that a teacher's certificate automatically qualifies a teacher for counseling duties.

A further obstacle to counseling is found in the multitudinous duties heaped upon teachers. Meeting classes, preparing teaching materials, preparing and marking examinations, performing clerical tasks, and contributing numerous reports—all these duties often give the teacher a feeling that counseling activities are merely the assignment of another chore. If teachers are to become personnel workers, the school administrator must arrange sufficient time for them to do this work. Effective counseling cannot result from hurried and brief contacts sandwiched between a thousand and one other duties.

Even if the teacher is qualified by his personality and makes time for counseling, he is severely handicapped by the lack of training in the techniques of the task. Teacher-training institutions have been slow to meet the demand for persons well-grounded in the methods of personnel work. Specialists of the clinical type obtain their training in professional schools. But the teacher is usually forced to improvise his training. The majority of states in this country grant a teacher's certificate on the basis of a four-year curriculum into which must be crowded a teaching major and minor in addition to courses in teaching techniques. The trend of

¹ BRYAN, ROY C., "Pupil Ratings of Secondary-school Teachers," *The School Review*, May, 1938, 46.357-367

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requiring a fifth year of preparation for certification may in time correct teachers' lack of training in student personnel work. At the present time all schools may, through "in-service" training, help to bridge the gap between counseling opportunity and preparation. In a later chapter we shall discuss methods of in-service training.

An old, but not yet outmoded, concept of discipline has also made it difficult for some teachers to counsel students in the classroom. Administrators who demand that teachers use the mailed fist to keep restless youngsters in unnatural order, erect a barrier difficult to surmount in searching for a common ground of sympathetic understanding. Discipline of this type is definitely not a part of personnel work.

Still another obstacle to efforts designed to persuade the teacher to become a personnel worker lies in his tendency to "let George do it." In personnel programs which make use of the specialist in varying capacities, classroom teachers may conclude that counseling is the sole responsibility of these specialists. This false conclusion often arises quite as much from the specialist's desire to safeguard his prerogatives as from the teacher's laziness or indifference. Since the teacher is usually untrained to understand and perform his personnel functions, a necessary duty of the specialists is that of developing proper attitudes in the teacher, as well as demonstrating concretely what functions the teacher can perform.

Still another handicap of teachers as personnel workers lies in the recency of development of their concept of the student personnel program in education.

Techniques of Instruction.—What can the personnel-minded teacher do in the classroom to help students learn and develop? Five techniques can be used as a part of instruction, they are. (1) individualization; (2) motivation; (3) prevention of disciplinary problems; (4) orientation; and (5) remedial instruction.

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Individualization of instruction does not mean that each student is taught each subject separately by a teacher. Group instruction proves effective for a large number of the students in any class, provided that the teacher makes reasonable efforts to relate his materials of instruction to the wide range of differences in interests and abilities. If, however, the methods of individualization are ineffective and some students do not learn, then other techniques must be employed, such as individual counseling and remedial teaching. In a sense, therefore, individualization of instruction is an attempt to deal with the individual student in the classroom group, whereas counseling and remediation are methods used with individual students in the one-to-one personal interview. The phrase, individualization of instruction, does not, therefore, refer to individual students but rather to methods which are less mass-minded than are the traditional and formal lecture-recitation techniques.

Individualization requires that the instructor know the students as well as the materials to be taught. The teacher needs to know more about some students than about others. For some, relatively little need be known by the teacher, but in other cases the teacher must turn to the specialist for an intensive and comprehensive case study before attempting to teach the student. No general rule can be set down as to how much the teacher should know about each student. It is safe to state, however, that at present most teachers know too little about their students. Such a state of affairs is not likely to be corrected by insisting that each teacher must become qualified to serve as a psychiatrist and psychologist for each of his students. Rather, what we should do is to persuade teachers to learn as much as they can of students from classroom observations and relationships. If the resulting information proves to be insufficient to understand and instruct a particular student, then the teacher must seek the assistance of counselors and other specialists. In other

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words, when a teacher has a student with whom he "just can't seem to get anywhere," he should not ascribe the difficulty to innate perversity on the part of the student, but he should seek use of the results of an expert and thorough diagnosis by a competent counselor. This latter step may not be necessary in the case of most students, provided that the classroom teacher has become informed and skilled in the use of some of the simpler methods of counseling. Probably these simpler methods, described in Chaps. VII and VIII, should be used by teachers in the case of all students within the limitations of teaching load and other local conditions.

We shall briefly discuss several methods used to individualize instruction in the classroom. Multiple-track classes are in reality relatively homogeneous groupings of students either in terms of general ability and achievement in all subjects or in terms of achievement in any single subject. An example of the first type of grouping is found in the common practice of segregating students with low I Q.'s in special classes. Corre describes such a plan for dull-normal students.¹ The second type of grouping is found in the practice of organizing a special class for students who possess sufficient general ability but who are below standard in English, mathematics, or any other subject. Special remedial classes in reading also illustrate this type of homogeneous grouping which provides special instruction for a narrower range of talent and achievement than is represented in a regular class. Both plans of grouping may be effective for many students, but neither plan actually reaches every student. Additional instructional methods must be used in the case of many students.

The problem method of individualized instruction is an adaptation of the unit plan which centers instruction about

¹ CORRE, MARY P., "An Adjusted Curriculum for the Dull-normal Pupils," *Occupations*, October, 1938, 17 34-39

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life situations.¹ Real problems are studied in relation to students' experiences. Essentially this method is an attempt to teach students in terms of the examples and materials which are near at hand. Theories and principles are learned through the medium of firsthand experiences from the students' lives and not merely by memorization of textbook points.

Closely related to the problem method of instruction is the project technique.² Projects are classified into four types: objective, aesthetic, problem, and skill.³ An appraisal of the project method reveals these strengths: stress upon purpose in learning, motivation through natural interests, use of experiences, opportunity for creativeness, recognition of individual differences, and elimination of useless materials from the curriculum. Criticisms of the method have been: chaos in the work of the school, wide gaps in content, lost motion, few teachers capable of effective use, and "sugar-coated" technique. Like other plans of individualization its success depends upon the way in which it is applied and the situations in which it is applied.

A school-wide system of individualization is exemplified in the Winnetka schools⁴ where each student is encouraged to learn at his own pace. A balance is maintained between common essentials and group and creative activities. The major emphasis is placed upon the learning and adjustment problems of each student, and teachers supplement their group methods by whatever is necessary to the encouragement and development of each student.

Another system of individualized instruction is found in the Dalton plan developed by Parkhurst in the Dalton, Mass.,

¹ DOUGLASS, HARL R., *Modern Methods in High School Teaching*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1926.

² UNSTATTD, P. G., *Secondary School Teaching*, pp. 153-157, Ginn and Company, Boston, 1937.

³ HOSIC, JAMES F., and SARA E. CHASE, *Brief Guide to the Project Method*, Chap. VIII, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., 1924.

⁴ WASHBURN, CARLETON, *Adjusting the School to the Child*, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., 1932.

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high school.¹ Essentially this is a laboratory method involving a wide use of the contract.

Umstattd recommends another plan of individualization of instruction.² This is the group-study plan, a combination of the contract and multiple-track techniques. Homogeneous grouping *within a heterogeneous group*, in the same classroom, under the same teacher, at the same time, is the method used. This plan may be used in schools too small to allow for homogeneous grouping and in large schools where certain classes enroll too few students for sectioning.

Motivation—More than individualization of instruction through use of the above methods is necessary in the discharge of personnel functions in the classroom. The teacher must seek to *create a desire to learn* if instruction is to be effective. A teacher, wise in the mores of secondary education, once said there are no boring subjects, only tiresome teachers. "Every few centuries some educator like Plato or Pestalozzi discovers the principle that one learns better when one is interested than when one is not. Sensitive teachers rediscover it every day"³ A teacher with an engaging personality, an understanding of adolescents, a thorough grounding in her subject matter, and a stimulating viewpoint can make the classroom a place where students want to come. The instructor who possesses these qualifications can stimulate students, not necessarily to become great scholars, but to make the school years meaningful and helpful in later life situations.

The traditional lesson planning of teachers can become an effective way of deadening students' desire to learn. Hour by hour, day by day, and week by week, the old system of lesson planning enumerated pages from textbooks. Pupils painfully masticated printed pages and reproduced what

¹ PARKHURST, HELEN, *Education on the Dalton Plan*, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1930

² UMSTATTD, *op cit*, pp 169-171

³ SIMON, HENRY W., *Preface to Teaching*, pp 106-107, Oxford University Press, New York, 1938

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they could upon the pages of closely policed examinations. This method of regimenting learning made it difficult for the student to get any intrinsic satisfaction from his attempts to learn. If he achieved extrinsic satisfactions, he became motivated, if he received failing marks, there remained no incentives to direct his efforts.

Closely related to the motivational responsibility of teachers is the function of *discipline*. In the past many personnel workers concentrated their efforts upon the relatively few students who were seriously maladjusted. Today we emphasize the necessity of prevention and in this program every classroom teacher plays a significant role. Many serious problems of maladjustment may never occur if the classroom teacher assumes responsibility for the following modern disciplinary functions:

1. Establishing and maintaining favorable study conditions free from distractions and misbehavior
2. Establishing and maintaining respect for authority within the school
3. Developing in students ideals, interests, habits, and skills making for self-government and good citizenship¹

If discipline is defined in its older sense of order through reward and punishment, it is not a personnel function of the teacher. But if we recognize that behavior problems are symptoms of emotional and social maladjustments, and if we teach so that the student will attain emotional maturity through performing interesting and satisfying acts—then discipline becomes a normal phase of instruction. Of course, even the best of classroom instruction may not compensate for serious home and community conditions causing behavior maladjustments. In such cases the teacher must ask for supplementary assistance from counselors and psychiatrists.

¹ DOUGLASS, HARL R., *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, pp. 267-287, Ginn and Company, Boston, 1932

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Another personnel responsibility of classroom teachers is the *orientation of new students*. Students need to be oriented to a new subject or unit of a subject. The teacher who begins a course with the announcement of the textbook and the number of pages to be read before the next day and then plunges into a lecture, has lost an opportunity to do personnel work. Students are enrolled in any one class for a number of different reasons. Some have come because the subject follows a sequence they are taking for no known reason. Others are sincerely interested and need little orientation. A few are in the class because their friends like the teacher or the subject. In some cases students are present because a program adviser enrolled them for some unexplained reason. For these and other reasons students need to be given an introduction to the subject, they need to be told what it is and why it is worth taking. Enthusiasm should be aroused, rather than administering it as so much bitter medicine in the hope that eventually it will have a salutary effect. This initiation, on both a group and individual basis, is a personnel function of the teacher which we may call orientation.

Another type of orientation is concerned with the student's educational and vocational problems. When students enroll in high school, they need assistance in choosing a course of study and an occupational goal. In many schools regular classes, variously called vocations, occupations, or vocational civics, are taught. In a following section of this chapter these group guidance classes will be discussed. The orientation referred to in the present section should take place in every class. For example, an English teacher may emphasize the importance of spelling in stenography and a number of other types of work. Teachers of automechanics are able to point out direct relationships between the subject matter and job opportunities and practice. Teachers of social science may illustrate the relationships between the

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study of local, state, and national economic conditions and the problems of choosing an occupation and securing employment. In almost all subjects, the classroom teacher can and should orient the students to the broader aspects of the subject matter they are learning.

The last personnel function of classroom teachers we shall discuss in this section is *remedial instruction*. Almost any instructional responsibility of the classroom teacher, if applied to extreme instances, becomes the function of a specialist. This is particularly true of the remedial aspects of teaching. One undesirable aspect of remediation should be mentioned. As educators accept increased responsibilities for adaptation to individual differences and for the specific needs of individual students, classroom teachers are assigned new duties to perform. This trend is true not only of counseling, as we stated above, but also of remedial instruction. Brueckner points out this trend in the following quotation:

The rapid development of these special agencies that deal with aspects of growth formerly given little consideration by the school shows the extent to which the school is assuming some responsibility for the correction of maladjustments of all kinds that interfere with the optimal growth of all learners. All these agencies require the services of persons with special types of training, some of them of a highly technical kind. *In schools where these agencies are lacking the teacher must assume responsibility of dealing with the conditions*¹ (Italics not in original)

In similar manner Travis assigns technical responsibilities to the teacher with respect to remediation of speech disabilities.

Before everything else the teacher should know something of the child's familial stock and of his early development. Among the circumstances to be inquired about in the child's family stock are speech

¹ BRUECKNER, LEO J., *Educational Diagnosis*, pp. 3-4, Introduction to the Thirty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1935

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defects, mental deficiency, nervous and mental disorders, condition of the mother during prenatal life of the child, age of onset of talking and walking, emotional reactions, and progress in school. Also the social, economic, and racial environment of the child should be evaluated. . . . The teacher is not expected to be able to make physical diagnosis, but she should be able to appreciate the findings of the physician and to recognize certain symptoms in order to refer certain children to him.

Further, she should appreciate the meaning of deformities, asymmetries, and stigmata. The function of the particular structures should be carefully noted for possible deviations from the normal. The teacher will be interested particularly in muscular weakness and paralyses, choreoid and athetoid movements and tremors.¹

Such remedial functions added to lesson preparation, student conferences, extracurricular responsibilities, examination making and scoring, and the many other duties appear to be an unreasonable professional load to expect of teachers unless they have received more training than is now required in most states.

There are, however, many remedial functions which teachers can and should perform. We shall mention a few of these responsibilities. For example, in most classes teachers discover a wide range in speed and comprehension of reading materials. Something must be done by the teacher if learning is not to be prevented by serious reading handicaps. Much interest has been shown by teachers in methods of diagnosis and remediation of these disabilities, especially the possibility of improving reading through group instruction. Under some conditions group techniques have proved to be valuable and teachers may make effective use of these methods.²

¹ TRAVIS, LEE EDWARD, "Diagnosis in Speech," *Educational Diagnosis*, Chap. 19, pp. 402-403, Thirty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1935.

² BENNETT, A., "Remedial Instruction in Reading in Secondary School," *Yearbook* 1937, pp. 42-47, New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, New York, 1937.

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In addition to group methods of remediation, many teachers are responsible for tutoring individual students. This tutoring may be needed with respect to a specific deficiency caused by poor background, poor study habits, long absence from the classroom, physical conditions, or other reasons.

In large school systems special classes, under the direction of specialists, are formed for students with common problems needing remedial assistance. In small schools the number of students who are blind or partially blind, deaf or hard of hearing, or defective in speech is so small that the community cannot afford special classes or teachers. Under these circumstances makeshift remediation is the only method to be used. Special programs of remedial instruction through classes are needed for: (1) students with defects in sight; (2) those with physical disabilities; (3) the deaf and hard of hearing, (4) the mentally retarded, and (5) students with speech defects.

In every classroom, however, the teacher will discover simpler problems needing remedial assistance. These include the normal difficulties of learning. Through an analysis of written examinations and oral recitation, the teacher may learn the nature of the materials proving difficult for the student to learn. By means of individual and tutorial instruction these learning difficulties are often corrected without much extra effort. In other cases analysis of learning errors proves to be a superficial diagnosis, and the teacher must refer the student to a clinical psychologist for more technical diagnosis and remediation.

We have discussed in this section the personnel functions and techniques of the classroom teacher. These were directly related to instruction and as such are not usually considered as part of the personnel program. But we include them here because they illustrate the fact that the classroom teacher can be a personnel worker by performing his teaching

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duties. By individualizing and personalizing instruction, the teacher is in reality performing his part of the school's program of assisting students to develop their capabilities. For many classroom teachers these will be the only personnel functions discharged. Other teachers will, in addition, perform counseling functions described in Chap. VIII. Still other teachers will serve as personnel workers in the homeroom and in group guidance classes. We turn now to a discussion of these two additional personnel functions involving the use of instructional techniques.

THE HOMEROOM TEACHER

The homeroom teacher is assigned various duties in different schools. In general these duties may be classified under seven heads: (1) discipline and social conduct; (2) special activities; (3) guidance; (4) administrative (e.g. attendance records), (5) school spirit and activities; (6) civic training, and (7) methods of studying.¹ Our interest lies in those phases of the homeroom which are directly related to the personnel program.

We find wide differences of opinion concerning the value of the homeroom for personnel work. For example, Douglass says:

Except in those schools in which there are competent and forceful head counselors or chief advisers with the authority and the time to direct the activities of the advisers, the homeroom, or group, advisory organization has rarely been very successful as an instrument for guidance.²

Umstatted takes a somewhat more optimistic view in placing the success or failure of the homeroom program on the shoulders of the individual homeroom teacher.

¹ KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., and ROBERT E. SCOTT, "The Homeroom in the Administration of Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, April, 1930, 31: 624-641.

² DOUGLASS, *op cit*, p. 193

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The number and the kind of needs which are discovered and met by the homeroom adviser depend upon the enthusiasm and sincerity of the teacher as well as upon his experience and technical skill in guidance. Some advisers in poorly organized schools may be satisfied with a perfunctory roll call each morning. Others will be content with nothing less than systematic diagnosis and thorough treatment of the personal, educational, and social needs of each pupil in their groups.¹

Contrary to general impression, the homeroom did not originate as a personnel activity.² The origin of the homeroom is found in the abandonment of the old, one-teacher school. Large schools, with many departments and teachers within departments, required a means of dealing with routine matters of population statistics and attendance records. The homeroom as an agency for guidance activities originated at a later date than the homeroom as a branch of administration. At present the number of nonguidance activities in the homeroom are greater than the guidance activities in a ratio of between two and three to one.³

In performing personnel functions the homeroom teacher faces conditions and difficulties similar to those discussed in the previous section on classroom teachers. Some of these difficulties may be avoided if the administrator selects his best teachers for homeroom duties. If the homeroom teacher is to function as a personnel worker, with greater responsibilities than the classroom teacher, time must be allotted for the performance of these extra tasks. The usual period of fifteen to forty minutes, two or three times a week, is not sufficient for an adviser to meet more than a few of the counseling needs of students.

Douglass states four conditions which must exist if the homeroom teacher is to be successful in an advisory capacity:

¹ UMSTATTD, *op cit*, p. 413.

² KOOS, LEONARD V., and GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

³ *Ibid*, p. 548.

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1. The adviser must be one who by training, personality, and interest is fitted to render an adviser's services
2. Time and opportunity should be provided for conferences between the adviser and each pupil assigned to him
3. The advisers must be furnished with adequate case data
4. Advisers must be trained not to neglect the advisory activities in favor of routine activities ¹

Frequently homeroom advisers are forced into a situation for which they have little liking and are burdened with responsibilities beyond their training. The homeroom program has possibilities of being an effective part of the personnel program, but at present no school has succeeded in establishing it as a valid substitute for trained counselors. In schools with efficient classroom teachers, trained counselors, and group guidance classes, the homeroom appears to add but little to the personnel program.

GROUP GUIDANCE CLASSES

Classroom guidance, by means of instruction in special subject matter not included in regular classes, includes three types

1. Regular courses in community civics, occupations, safety education, and practical psychology, taught as regular subjects and carrying credit as academic subjects. In some schools these subjects have become part of the regular and official curriculum, in other schools such classes are still part of the extracurriculum
2. Homeroom programs which are planned, year by year, to meet group needs of a certain age or grade. Ordinarily these courses are taught by homeroom teachers two or three days each week and do not always carry scholastic credit
3. Units of work included in the academic subjects for the purpose of discussing social or individual problems and in order to build desirable student attitudes

The most common of the group guidance courses deals with occupational information. As early as 1917 Brewer

¹ DOUGLASS, *op. cit.*, pp 194-196

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advocated this method of vocational guidance.¹ This course is most commonly taught in the junior high school but is sometimes included in the curriculum of senior high schools.²

Lane lists the following objectives of this course: educational guidance, occupational orientation, and an understanding of the work which people do. The value of the course for vocational guidance is difficult to defend since aptitudes, abilities, and valid interest patterns are not easily discoverable merely by reading books about jobs.³

Through group guidance courses, other teaching materials have been added to the curriculum. Psychology is becoming increasingly popular with the advent of books which emphasize the practical psychology of living.⁴ The importance of understanding human beings and why they are what they are is self-evident. New social science courses contribute to better adjustment in social situations and may be important in the prevention of delinquency and other types of maladjustments. Courses in automobile driving, safety in the home, prevention of accidents, and traffic regulation are being taught. All of these courses are attempts of the school to assist students through the medium of classroom instruction in new courses. All classes provide some opportunity for group guidance, but the above types include new and important materials of instruction. In time these courses will become integrated with the regular courses and perhaps cease to be part of the personnel program.

In some school systems the above types of new subject matter are included in the program of homeroom instruc-

¹ BREWER, JOHN M., "Vocational Guidance through the Life-career Class," *School and Society*, November 10, 1917, 6 541-545

² KOOS and KEFAUVER, *op cit*, pp 71-72

³ LANE, MAY ROGERS, *Manual to Accompany Vocations in Industry*, p 7, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1929

⁴ POWERS, FRANCIS F., T. R. MCCONNELL, WILLIAM CLARK TROW, BRUCE J. MOORE, and CHARLES E. SKINNER, *Psychology in Everyday Living*, D. C. Heath & Company, Boston, 1938

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tion. Thus we find homeroom plans which call for social guidance in the seventh grade and emphasize the importance of good behavior, politeness, and social usage. In the eighth grade the program may be devoted to a study of community civics, and at the ninth-grade level vocational orientation may be adopted as the chief theme. Because of lack of time, these new materials are not dealt with as extensively as in group guidance classes. The extent to which desirable behavior results from this instruction will depend upon the teacher, the care with which the program is planned, and the number of common problems among students.

Group guidance materials of the type listed above are sometimes included in the traditional subject matter classes. Thus units in safety education may be introduced in civics classes. Vocational and economic materials are sometimes included in science classes. Educational and occupational information may be included in community courses. Psychology and sociology may also become a part of classes in civics.

As more of group guidance materials are incorporated into regular classes, the term group guidance may disappear. Personnel workers look forward to an educational millenium wherein the instructional program of the school is more nearly oriented to the problems of students. At such a time the distinction between counseling and instruction will have become clearer as will also the supplementary relationship between group techniques in the classroom and individualized methods in the face-to-face interview.

SUMMARY

In a number of respects classroom and homeroom teachers may be included in the ranks of personnel workers. Teachers can perform personnel functions because of their intimate relations with pupils, opportunity for observation, leadership in developing school morale, accessibility to students,

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and the fact that actual application of counselors' recommendations falls upon the teachers. The weaknesses of classroom teachers as personnel workers lie in the fact that their training and instructional methods are often not adequate to deal with students' personal problems.

The teacher functions as a personnel worker in several ways. He individualizes classroom instruction, creates in students a desire to learn, and helps students to learn new materials of a group guidance type.

In some schools specific problems of subject matter deficiencies are dealt with by remedial teachers with professional training. The greatest recent interest has been in the field of remedial reading. Subject matter deficiencies have been attacked through special remedial classes, how-to-study classes, drill sections, and tutorial instruction. Special teachers are employed to deal with handicapped pupils. Sight-saving classes and classes for subnormals, crippled children, and hard-of-hearing cases are examples of the various attempts to individualize instruction through special classes.

Teachers also perform personnel functions by teaching group guidance and homeroom classes which include materials and content of direct assistance to students in making personal, emotional, and vocational adjustments. As teachers become more proficient in the individualization of education, this area of group guidance may cease to be the special concern of personnel workers and become an integral part of the regular instructional program of the school.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. What counseling activities can the teacher carry on as part of instructional duties?
2. What types of student problems should the teacher refer to counseling specialists?
3. Discuss the topic, "All teachers should be counselors."
4. What personality traits should classroom teachers possess in order to be effective personnel workers?

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- 5 What suggestions can you make in regard to the training of teachers as personnel workers by teacher-training institutions?
6. What specific counseling results may be expected from the homeroom?
- 7 List a number of methods of individualizing instruction in classes with from 35 to 40 students?
- 8 Outline the orientation functions of the classroom teacher
- 9 What are the most common problems of remediation which occur in the classroom?
- 10 What student maladjustments may be treated through remedial instruction and special classes?
- 11 What are the chief differences between group guidance and subject matter instruction?
- 12 What is the difference between group guidance classes and group activities?

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CHAPTER VII

Collecting Information for Counseling

COUNSELING cannot be effective unless the counselor is well informed about (1) the characteristics and potentialities of the student, and (2) the influences and resources of school, home, and community in which the student's problems arise and in which he must make his adjustments. This means that the counselor must collect and interpret many facts before he is prepared to assist the student.¹ Just as a teacher must prepare for his classwork, the counselor must prepare for his interview with students, in which he performs the counseling equivalent of instruction. Preparatory to interviewing students, the counselor must collect, review, and interpret (tentatively) information about the student and his total environment. This is the process of analysis which precedes the diagnosis or interpretation of the student's problems and potentialities. In this chapter we shall describe several important methods of analyzing or collecting information for counseling.

The Case Study.²—The process of collecting information about the student and his community is called the making of a case study, a term borrowed from social case work. This case study represents a complete description of the student

¹PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN, "The Role of the Counselor," in *The Challenge of Education* by the Stanford University Education Faculty, Chap XXIII, p 358, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc, New York, 1937

²STRANG, RUTH, *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*, Chap III, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1937

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at present and a summary of the significant and relevant facts from his developmental and changing behavior and achievement of the past. As we shall see, many persons cooperate in the making of a complete and exhaustive case study—counselor, classroom teachers, homeroom teacher, school nurse, social workers, and others. At the present time, however, few such complete case studies are made except for “problem cases.” For other students the counselor collects incomplete information as a basis for counseling. In an ideal school system an extensive and up-to-date case history would be made for every student. Since such a Utopia is as yet in the future, the counselor must collect as much information as is readily available and hope that it is adequate for assisting students. Fortunately that available amount is adequate for many of the problems of youth. If simple data and techniques prove to be inadequate, then more complete information must be collected and used.

One more point must be made concerning the making of the case study. The data for this case study are to be found in many sources, and many persons must cooperate in collecting them. But one person alone, the counselor, must assume responsibility for interviewing the student and assisting him. This coordination and personal use of core data is one of the unique functions of the counselor. Counseling of the type discussed in this section can be performed only when there is a personal relationship between two persons. Students cannot be counseled in a goldfish bowl. Equally germane to the counselor's coordinating function is the fact that a student cannot achieve self-understanding and work out a balanced solution to his problems if he is assisted in piecemeal fashion by a number of independent personnel workers. The counselor must, therefore, correlate and integrate all information collected from other personnel workers and use that information in private interviews with the student. Such interviews must be conducted in a

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private office, reasonably free from distracting interruptions and with no third party present.¹

As we have said, at present counselors cannot hope to make complete case studies of every student. But, whatever the pressing or immediate problem of the student, the counselor should seek to collect information of the following types.

1. Relationships with and attitudes toward all members of the family and other nonschool individuals with whom the student comes into contact, community activities, significant changes and tendencies in social and emotional development in the family situation

- 2 Social, personal, and emotional relationships with teachers and with other students, participation in school activities and social affairs, and satisfaction with and attitude toward this participation, significant tendencies revealed over a period of years

- 3 Moral and religious practices, beliefs, and attitudes, philosophy of life, changes in these beliefs and attitudes

- 4 Educational and vocational ambitions and goals, and changes in these goals

- 5 Aptitudes, interests, and work experiences

- 6 Progress in school work, and changing or constant attitudes toward and interest in this progress

- 7 His present health status and developmental record of physical and health and recreational habits and interests

In seeking for information of the above types, the counselor uses certain tools, techniques, and resources. These we shall discuss briefly and in a nontechnical manner, placing special emphasis upon the practical aspects of the counselor's use of these tools and techniques. For more technical discussions the reader is referred elsewhere.²

¹ BINGHAM, WALTER V, and BRUCE V MOORE, *How to Interview*, rev., Harper & Brothers, New York, 1934

² PATERSON, DONALD G., GWENDOLYN G PATERSON, and EDMUND G WILLIAMSON, *Student Guidance Techniques*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938

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INFORMATION AVAILABLE IN THE SCHOOL

Many types of data for counseling are to be found in every school. Although larger schools with organized personnel programs provide more information, nevertheless counselors in small high schools have much information at hand if they will but collect it. The absence of a complicated system of filing cabinets and office clerks is not a legitimate excuse for attempting to counsel with too little information collected before the interview.

Counseling data available in the school include the following: teachers' marks and promotion records, reports of teachers' observations of classroom behavior, records of participation in school activities, reports by teachers and administrators of citizenship behavior in the school. We shall discuss these data briefly from the standpoint of the counselor who needs to have them available before interviewing a student.

School Marks.—An inspection of school grades may reveal the locus of the student's problems in a particular class or in a type of subject matter, such as mathematics. Moreover, significant and diagnostic tendencies with respect to emotional adjustments, scholastic motivational interests, and indications of aptitude may be revealed by a study of trends or consistencies in the grade record of a student. Not merely the present grades but the record of previous achievement should be studied. Obviously, students may themselves report orally to the counselor this grade record. Nevertheless, it is necessary that the counselor check for himself since students frequently make inaccurate reports of marks.

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Every school maintains a record of the final marks assigned to each student in each class. In the absence of information to the contrary, the counselor must assume that each mark represents the teacher's best judgment as to the student's *demonstrated* aptitude for the content of a particular course or subject. On the basis of this assumption, the counselor uses this grade record, collected from the principal's office or from the student himself, as a basis for determining

- 1 Whether the student is making satisfactory progress toward graduation
2. Whether the student is achieving up to the level of his capacity as determined by grades in other courses or by tests of intelligence
- 3 Whether the student is exhibiting demonstrated aptitude for his educational and vocational goals
- 4 Whether these grades reveal any interests and aptitudes usable in occupations not previously considered by the student
- 5 Whether the record indicates wide discrepancies between teachers' marks and sudden and marked changes in levels of achievements possibly symptomatic of emotional disturbances, social conflicts, or deficiencies in special abilities

Teachers' Information.—Having inspected grades, the counselor may then tap another source of information. He may interview the teachers who assigned these grades to learn more detailed information of the student's scholastic and social behavior in the class. Valuable bits of information are frequently obtained in this manner concerning the student's work habits, attitudes toward school and a particular subject, social cooperativeness, and many other personality traits. A few minutes spent in interviewing teachers often provides the counselor with vital information for counseling the student. Moreover, this technique gives teachers a better understanding of a little-used but important instructor's function and a sense of worth-while participation in the personnel program.

Anecdotal Records.—In those schools which have a system of anecdotal records, the counselor should read these

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reports already collected periodically from teachers and filed or summarized in the student's case folder.

. . . The anecdote is a record of some significant item of conduct, a record of an episode in the life of the student, a word picture of the student in action, the teacher's best effort at taking a word snapshot at the moment of the incident, any narrative of events in which the student takes part such as to reveal something which may be significant about his personality¹

Instead of making questionable use of rating scales to describe intellectual, social, and emotional behavior, the teacher is asked to write in a few sentences an objective description of what she observed and heard—antisocial behavior, exceptional intellectual activity, unusual leadership, and the like. The facts are recorded in a straightforward manner followed, in some cases, by the teacher's own guess as to what the observed behavior means. A single such anecdote is of questionable value, but a number coming from different teachers during the school year may reveal significant tendencies not otherwise to be discovered. By means of this anecdotal technique the valuable but fragmentary counseling data known only to individual teachers may be utilized in making a more complete case study. Such records are usually lost unless recorded soon after observations are made since the teacher cannot remember all such incidents over a long period of time. Single incidents should not form the basis for counseling; synthesis of many incidents is necessary to avoid unrepresentative sampling of behavior.

Social Participation.—The counselor should inspect the student's cumulative record folder for reports of leadership and participation in extracurricular activities. Likewise,

¹ RANDALL, J. A., "The Anecdotal Behavior Journal," *Progressive Education*, January, 1936, 13-22.

TRAXLER, ARTHUR E., *The Nature and Use of Anecdotal Records*, Educational Records Bureau, January, 1939 (mimeographed).

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the counselor should interview the faculty sponsors of these clubs and activities to learn detailed information about the student's record of leadership, quality of work, dependability, and similar significant personality traits. As in the case of school marks, face-to-face interviewing of club and activity sponsors is the only satisfactory technique for collecting valuable information about social adjustments and leadership in citizenship activities, unless the school maintains a complete anecdotal record system.

Cumulative Records.—Most schools maintain a file of the student's marks recorded on a printed form by year, teacher, and subject. *This is not a cumulative record in the personnel sense of the term.* The personnel cumulative record is usually an 8½ by 11 manila folder with printed items and questions, and appropriate spaces for answers, on at least two faces of the folder. Information items are to be recorded for *each* year of the student's residence in the school. This last feature is the significant one, inspection of these annual entries will reveal *trends* in the student's behavior, a most useful diagnostic datum.¹ Entries for any one year are often unimportant, but persistency of behavior or abrupt changes often serve as symptoms of types of behavior either to be encouraged or investigated by the counselor.²

With proper safeguards for confidence, the counselor's interview notes and the teachers' anecdotal reports may be filed in these folders along with other loose-leaf case information. Reports from physicians and nurses (who maintain their own confidential files), school psychologists, and visiting teachers also may be filed in this folder. Many counselors insist upon inspecting and studying this loose-leaf information rather than merely noting the annual summaries

¹ SEGEL, DAVID, "Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record," *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin* 3, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1938.

² RUCH, *op. cit.*, pp. 41-44

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entered in the inadequately small printed spaces of the manila folder

Many commercial firms publish printed cumulative record forms inexpensively for quantity purchases. One of the best and cheapest forms available is that issued by the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. The Council also publishes an excellent manual giving detailed instruction for the entry of items of information and for wise use of the record form in a personnel program.¹ This form contains space for annual recording of the following items.

(Front Face)		
1. Last name		[Elementary school record (1-2)—Space for two records]
First name		
Middle name		[Space for seven years of records, divided into four groups for each year, according to months. (3-30)]
Religion		
Date and place of birth		
Sex		
Color		
2. Year		
3. Grade ———, achieved, attended	16-23	Studies, credits, grades
	24	Discipline
4. Age	25	Counselors
Mental	26	Names and types of schools
Chronological	27	Reasons for leaving
5-15. Graph space for percentiles and grades for Achievement tests and school marks	28.	Number of days absent
Standardized tests	29.	Year
Local percentiles	30	Age
Letter grades	31.	Notable accomplishments; unusual experiences
Height and weight	32	Clubs, offices
	33-36.	Extracurricular experiences:

¹ *Instructions for Use of American Council on Education Brief Cumulative Record Form for Public Schools*, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 8 pp

"Personnel Methods," *The Educational Record*, Supplement, No. 8, July, 1928, 68 pp

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	Athletic—hours a week	Name
	Non-athletic—hours a week	Health
		Religion
37-40	Vocational experiences.	Deceased, date
	Type and duration	Place of birth
	Weekly pay	Arrived in U. S. and date
	Hours a week	Education, degree and kind
41.	Support of self and dependents	Occupations
42	Loans and scholarships	Addresses
43	Study conditions and hours of study a week	Telephone
44	Summer experiences	65 A Boys in family
45	Educational plans	Age
46	Educational suggestions	Living at home
47	Vocational and professional preferences	Schooling
		Occupation
48.	Interests reported	B Girls in family
49	Physical disabilities	Age
50	Health	Living at home
51	Mental health	Schooling
52	Social adjustments and home conditions	Occupation
53	Commuting time, hours a week	C Language spoken in the home
	(Reverse Face)	Before 10
		After 10
54	Students' addresses	D Type of home community.
	H = home	Before 10
	S = school	After 10
	T = telephone	E If parents are separated, give date
55-59	Personality ratings	
60	Personality measurements	Notes.
	Names of tests used	66 Year
61-64.	Father, mother, stepparent, guardian	67 Age
		68-99. Space for notes

OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION

The counselor cannot effectively assist students to choose their goals unless he is well informed about the nature, scope,

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and opportunities in the many training schools and occupations. He must read widely and continuously in the bulletins of schools and colleges and in the research studies designed to reveal what abilities are necessary to succeed in these schools. In like manner he must be informed about the many occupations. His personal library of occupational and educational information should be extensive and up-to-date. The following publications contain up-to-date information for counselors and students.

SOURCES OF CURRENT OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

Occupations.—The *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, published by the National Vocational Guidance Association. Current monthly issues contain current information about occupational opportunities and trends.

Guidance Leaflets.—U S Office of Education, Washington, D C (revised 1939). Separate brochures on law, medicine, dentistry, journalism, librarianship, architecture, civil engineering, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, pharmacy, nursing, forestry, music, veterinary medicine, chemistry and chemical engineering, art, home economics, optometry, osteopathy.

Occupational Index.—A monthly annotated bibliography of current occupational information. Published by Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York.

Occupational Abstracts.—Separate bulletins summarizing published literature on: engineering occupations, building construction, boiler-maker, blacksmith, welder, patternmaker, accountant, advertising, city and county management, dietetics, banking, beauty culture, bookkeeping, insurance salesman, general houseworker, vocational counselor, farming, architect, motion-picture actor, painting, photography, dental hygiene, journalism, landscape architecture, machinist, pharmacy, plumbing, waiters and waitresses, undertaker, barber, letter carrier, police officer, radio service man, teaching, linotype operator, nurse, music, cabinetmaker, baker, detective, office worker, stenographer. Published by the Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York.

Vocational Trends.—Monthly publication of current information on occupations. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.

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Occupational Monographs.—Special bulletins. "Employment Trends in the Printing Trades," "How to Choose a Career," "Highway Jobs," "Opportunities for Statistical Workers," "Employment in Land Transportation," "Careers in Consumer Cooperation," "Jobs in Rural Journalism," "Teaching as a Career" Published by Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill

In addition to using his own fund of information in his interviews with students, the counselor draws upon two other sources of informational assistance. He works with the school librarian in purchasing pamphlets and books. These materials should be made readily available on an open shelf or table so that the student may be encouraged to read widely. The counselor also assists in organizing and sometimes teaches classes in occupational information, making use of his own library and fund of information and of the school's materials. Both the library and the occupations class should be integrated with the counseling program if students are to be adequately informed before making educational and occupational choices.

INFORMATION COLLECTED BY TESTING

Much of the information collected in the case study will consist of teachers' and parents' opinions and judgments of the student's aptitudes, knowledge, and interests. While this information is valuable in itself, it should be verified by comparison with more objective data. The counselor, therefore, will want to turn to psychological testing for additional information. In schools where testing consists of an I. Q. test given perhaps once during the student's residence, the counselor will receive but little assistance in attempting to understand the student's capabilities. In schools where testing has advanced beyond the occasional I. Q. test, more adequate assistance will be available in the form of achievement tests and several I. Q. tests. In those schools where a child guidance clinic is part of the school

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system, professional assistance is available in the form of diagnoses made by school or clinical psychologists.

On the student's cumulative record card the counselor will find recorded the results of the I Q test. If several I Q's are recorded as given within the period of one or two years' time, the counselor will have a better basis for diagnosing the *general* capacity of the student to make normal progress toward graduation. If, in addition, several standardized achievement tests are recorded on the cumulative record card, the counselor will have an even better basis for diagnosing. If all of these tests have been repeated (with alternate and comparable forms) for a number of years, then the counselor has data for forming as accurate a diagnosis of educational capacity as is possible at the present time. In the more progressive schools this cumulative and annual testing is an accepted practice, and counseling may, therefore, be of a higher quality.

The counselor should recognize that intelligence and achievement tests are limited to the measurement of *relative* aptitude to do the tasks required of students in the traditional or standard curriculum. Many of the tasks required of students in some progressive schools are not measured by commercial tests. Nevertheless, these published tests do provide valuable information as to the student's aptitude for learning tasks of the traditional type in high school and college. In the case of students preparing for one of the traditional college curriculums (liberal arts, engineering, and the like), it is necessary that the counselor diagnose aptitude for these curriculums by means of tests different from the new type of evaluation tests used in progressive schools to measure the outcomes of new and, from the personnel viewpoint, more adequate curriculums. When and if these new evaluation tests are demonstrated to be diagnostic of aptitudes required in traditional college curriculums, they may be used as a basis of post-high-school educational guidance

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The counselor should be prepared to seek the assistance of the school psychologists in giving additional tests of aptitude. Many aptitudes, valuable in school and in various types of work, are not measured by tests of intelligence or school achievement. The necessary additional tests include measures of mechanical abilities, clerical aptitude, and the like. In addition, the trained counselor will want to check the student's educational and vocational goals by means of standardized interest tests. Many students claim to be interested in occupational goals and at the same time fall far short of the intellectual caliber required to achieve those goals. It is equally true that many students claim to possess interests in occupational groups but fail to exhibit these same interests in sufficient degree when compared with adult successful men or women in those occupations. The counselor should be critical of the student's claimed vocational interests until these interests have been verified by means of other case data.

Having collected test information regarding the student's abilities, interests, and achievement, the counselor will want to check these data against all of the other case data before interpreting them. A single test score should not be used as the basis for interviewing. As we shall note at a later point, test scores should be interpreted in the light of all other information collected about the student. Counselors should be particularly cautioned against counseling students on the basis of test scores alone.

Ability Profiles.—Test scores are not useful in counseling unless they are interpreted in terms of the student's probability of success in school curriculums and occupational competition. In other words, the counselor must understand the meaning of a test score. This meaning is discovered by comparing the student's score with educational and vocational ability profiles. It is not enough to know that a student has a percentile rank of 50 on an intelligence

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test. Is this equal to the scores of other students who have maintained a satisfactory standing in schoolwork? Likewise the counselor must know whether the student's percentile rank of 50 in a test of mechanical ability is equal to test scores of successful students in shop courses and to those of successful adult mechanics.

Thus we see that testing alone is not sufficient for counseling. The counselor must use norms, standards, and profiles in diagnosing ability. The theory and method of constructing these profiles are explained in the references listed below.¹ The counselor should understand, however, that he must see to it that educational ability profiles are established for each of the major curriculums in his school. With such profiles he will be able to determine whether a student possesses sufficient general and special abilities to succeed in a chosen course of study—provided that efficiency in the use of abilities, motivation, and other related factors are favorable.

Survey Tests.—An increasing number of high schools are administering standardized achievement tests, such as those listed in the following section. These tests are used chiefly as a standard against which to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction and the adequacy of the classroom curriculum. Obviously these uses relate directly to administrative and supervisory functions of the school. But there is no reason why these same tests cannot be used by counselors for guidance functions. If tests are administered before registration in classes, they may be used for sectioning on the basis

¹ BINGHAM, WALTER V., *Aptitude and Aptitude Testing*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1937.

DODGE, ARTHUR F., *Occupational Ability Patterns*, Teachers College Contributions to Education 658, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York, 1935.

FRYER, DOUGLAS, and E. J. SPARLING, "Intelligence and Occupational Adjustment," *Occupations*, June, 1934, 12:55-63.

PATERSON, DONALD G., and JOHN G. DARLEY, *Men, Women, and Jobs*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minn., 1936.

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of readiness-to-learn and also as a basis for counseling with regard to selection of educational goals. Tests given at the close of the semester or school year may be similarly used as a basis for educational counseling and remedial instruction.

We emphasize these points because of the undesirable practice in some schools of using such tests only for administrative and instructional purposes. If the test scores are recorded on cumulative record cards and made available to counselors, they may make repeated testing unnecessary. In addition, and more important, the record of several years' achievement testing provides the counselor with trend scores, that is, with evidence of intellectual growth over a period of time.

In schools where the counseling staff performs the testing functions, such coordination is achieved automatically. But where testing is assigned to school psychologists or to a child guidance clinic divorced from the counseling system, or is carried on by the principal, oftentimes the counselor is unaware of this important source of case data. The integration of such test records with other case data would permit the counselor to identify at an early date those students who are in immediate need of educational and personal counseling as well as remedial instruction.

Tests for Counseling.—This is not the place to describe in detail the hundreds of available tests. For this information the reader is referred elsewhere.¹ But a few of the important and useful tests are listed as follows:

¹ BINGHAM, *op cit*

EURICH, ALVIN, and C. GILBERT WRENN, "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs," *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, Chap. II, Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938

PATERSON, D. G., G. G. SCHNEIDLER, and E. G. WILLIAMSON, *Student Guidance Techniques*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938

RUCH and SEGEL, *op cit*

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Revised Stanford-Binet Scales, by L. M. Terman and Maud Merrill, 1937.

This test is designed for children and adults and will be much more adequate for younger children and for adolescents and adults than the 1916 scale, of which it is a greatly improved revision. The testing equipment is more elaborate than in the 1916 scale. The principle of age placement of tests yielding M. A. and I. Q. is continued.

Publisher: Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, for high-school students and college freshmen, 1928.

The Higher Examination is issued in four alternate forms: A, B, C, and D, alike except in specific content. There are seventy-five items in each form, arranged as an omnibus test in order of difficulty, covering such items as information, arithmetical reasoning, number series completion, opposites, analogies, proverbs, logical inference, and practical judgment. The time limit is thirty minutes, although a twenty-minute time limit may be used. The test is adapted for use in grades 9 to 12 and for college freshmen.

Publisher: World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.

American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High School Students, by L. L. Thurstone and T. G. Thurstone, 1936.

The 1936 edition is composed of four tests—English completion, arithmetic, analogies, opposites—and is designed for pupils in grades 9 to 12. It requires one hour to administer. A new and comparable form is published each year.

Publisher: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C.

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Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability, High School Examination, grades 7 to 12, by V. A. C. Henmon and M. J. Nelson, 1935

A four-page test containing ninety test items. Carbon strips inside record the responses made to the questions, and the score is the total number of correct responses. No intricate directions for scoring are required. The items are arranged in the order of increasing difficulty, and include types such as: opposites, completion, geometric analogies, work classification, number series completion, verbal analogies, disarranged sentences, recognition vocabulary, and arithmetic reasoning. The examinee selects one of five possible answers. The time allotment is thirty minutes. There are three forms: A, B, and C. The test is designed to measure the mental ability of students in junior and senior high schools. A simpler form is also available for grades 3 to 8.

Publisher: Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston

Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests, by F. Kuhlmann and R. G. Anderson, 4th ed., 1933.

The tests are for age six to maturity, grouped in nine batteries, each appropriate for a given age range and containing ten separate tests. The items have been standardized in terms of the mental development (mental age). Each battery may be used with groups of students or with individuals.

Publisher: Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 720 Washington Ave., S E., Minneapolis, Minn.

California Test of Mental Maturity, Advanced Series, grades 9 to 14, by Elizabeth T. Sullivan, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs, 1937.

This test contains situations organized in such a manner that a diagnostic profile is used to indicate the extent to

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which each testee possesses certain mental factors basic to learning. The test utilizes both language and nonlanguage situations. The battery covers the following factors: memory, orientation in spatial relations, mathematical and logical reasoning, and vocabulary. It also contains tests of vision, hearing, and motor coordination to aid in the identification of students with sensory capacity difficulties which may interfere with obtaining a valid test score. The test results are stated in mental ages, intelligence grade placements, and I. Q.'s, and the norms are comparable to the norms of other commonly used intelligence tests.

Publisher: Southern California School Book Depository, Ltd., 3636 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, Calif.

Chapman-Cook Speed of Reading Test, by J. C. Chapman and S. A. Cook, 1923.

This test was originally designed to measure the speed of reading of elementary-school pupils. At this level, it also tests comprehension. It is now used widely with high-school and college students, and with them tests speed of reading, but not comprehension. The examinee is instructed to cross out the obviously incorrect word which is found in the second half of each paragraph. The material consists of simple sentences arranged in thirty paragraphs with thirty words in each paragraph. There are two forms, A and B, Form B being slightly more difficult in order to counteract any effects of practice resulting from the administration of Form A first.

Publisher: Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 720 Washington Ave., S.E., Minneapolis, Minn.

Unit Scales of Attainment, Reading, grades 1B, 1A, 2B, 2A, 3 to 4, 4 to 6, 7 to 8, 9 to 12, by M. J. Van Wagenen, 1932-34.

Reading comprehension apart from speed is measured by the single choice questions following the eight paragraphs of

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materials in the social and natural sciences. The examinee's ability to grasp the main idea of the paragraph and to understand and interpret the material read is measured. About forty-five minutes are allowed.

Publisher: Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 720 Washington Ave., S E., Minneapolis, Minn.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests: Advanced Tests, by H. A. Greene, A. N. Jorgensen, and N. H. Kelley, 1927.

This test measures, in thirty-five minutes of testing time, skills necessary in effective reading in high school and college. There are six tests. Test 1 measures ability to comprehend the meaning of paragraphs dealing with subject matter in science and in English, Test 2 determines knowledge of word meaning, Test 3 measures the ability to comprehend the organization of paragraphs, Test 4, comprehension of the meaning of sentences, Test 5, ability to locate information in a sample index, Test 6, rate of reading. This advanced test may be administered to students from the first year in high school through the first year in college. The Elementary Test is designed for grades 4 to 9.

Publisher: World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.

Progressive Reading Tests, grades 1 to 3, 3 to 6, 7 to 9, 9 to 13, by E. W. Tiegs and W. W. Clark, 1934-37.

The tests are designed to measure power rather than speed, therefore, no time limit is set. Vocabulary and comprehension are measured.

Publisher: California Test Bureau, 3636 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, Calif.

Traxler Silent Reading Test, grades 7 to 10, by A. E. Traxler, 1934.

The following are measured by this test: speed of reading; vocabulary, or understanding of words, comprehension of

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important points from a single reading; and comprehension of reading materials which steadily increase in difficulty, with repeated readings possible

Publisher. Public School Publishing Co., 509-513 North East Street, Bloomington, Ill.

New Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Examination, by T L Kelley, G M Ruch, and L M Terman, 1929

The examination has five forms V, W, X, Y, and Z. It is designed to measure achievement in the following elementary-school subjects. reading, vocabulary and spelling, grammar and word usage, literature, social studies, physiology and hygiene, and arithmetic Two and one-half hours of actual working time are required, and it is recommended that the battery be given in four sittings. It is designed for pupils from grades 4 through 9

Publisher. The World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.

Metropolitan Achievement Test, Advanced Battery, by R. D. Allen, H H Bixler, W L Connor, F B Graham, G H. Hildreth, and J S Orleans, 1933

The advanced battery is for use with pupils in grades 7 and 8 in the public schools There are nine tests, covering reading, arithmetic, English, and social studies. For the most part, completion, short-answer, multiple-choice, and matching questions constitute the various types used.

Publisher. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.

Unit Scales of Attainment, Division 3, by M E. Branon, L J. Brueckner, A M Jordan, P. Cutright, W. A. Anderson, M. G. Kelty, A. Dvorak, and M. J Van Wagenen, 1933.

Division 3 is appropriate for students in grades 7 and 8. The time limits for the tests are not rigid, but the usual time

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allowed is three hours, divided into four periods of forty-five minutes each. Achievement in the following subjects is measured: reading, geography, literature, elementary science, American history, arithmetic, spelling, and grammar.

Publisher. Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 720 Washington Ave., S. E., Minneapolis, Minn.

Iowa Every-pupil Tests of Basic Skills for Grades 6, 7, and 8,
by E. Horn, M. McBroom, H. A. Greene, F. B. Knight,
E. F. Lindquist, 1936.

These tests include materials on the four main achievement fields: reading, work-study, language, and arithmetic. The total test requires four hours, twenty-four minutes of actual testing time.

Publisher. Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Extension Division, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

Progressive Achievement Tests, Intermediate Battery, by
E. W. Tieg and W. W. Clark, 1934.

These tests measure accomplishment in the basic skills of reading, language, and arithmetic. The intermediate battery is appropriate for students of the junior-high-school grades, 7, 8, and 9. The advanced battery is designed for use in the four years of high school and the first year of college.

Each of the five tests has a number of subsections. For example, the test of reading vocabulary samples the vocabulary of mathematics, science, social science, and general literature. Other tests include reading comprehension test, arithmetic reasoning, arithmetic fundamentals, and various aspects of language usage.

Publisher. Southern California School Book Depository, Ltd., 3636 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, Calif.

Cooperative Tests, which may be used with high-school students or after completion of high-school courses,

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are given below. A new and comparable form of each test is published each year.

Publisher: All the Cooperative tests are published by Cooperative Test Service, 500 West 116th Street, New York

Cooperative English Test, Series 1, by S. A. Leonard, M. H. Willing, V. A. C. Henmon, W. W. Cook, D. G. Paterson, and F. S. Beers.

This test includes questions on English usage, spelling, and vocabulary. Somewhat more appropriate for college students than is Series 2, but it may be administered to students as low as grade 7.

Cooperative English Test, Series 2, by M. F. Carpenter, E. F. Lindquist, D. G. Paterson, and F. S. Beers.

Questions on usage and spelling, and recognition vocabulary are included in this test which may be given to students from grade 7 through the senior year in college.

Cooperative Literary Acquaintance Test, by F. S. Beers and D. G. Paterson.

This test may be used with students in any year of high school or college, especially for those contemplating a major in English, journalism, or the languages. Questions are included covering the major fields of ancient and modern literature.

Cooperative General Mathematics Test for High School Classes, by H. T. Lundholm and L. P. Siceloff.

This test may be administered to students who have had two years of high-school mathematics or its equivalent.

Cooperative Plane Geometry Test, by J. A. Long and L. P. Siceloff.

Three subtests, composed of true-false, multiple-choice and short-answer items designed to gauge information in

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plane geometry make up the content of this test. It may be used with those who have had a course in plane geometry in high school, to determine whether they should repeat the work in college before taking advanced courses.

Cooperative Solid Geometry Test, by H. T. Lundholm, J. A. Long, and L. P. Siceloff.

This test is designed to measure achievement as indicated by information retained from course work in solid geometry. Students who have studied solid geometry for half a year in high school may be given the test.

Cooperative Algebra Test (Elementary and Intermediate), by J. A. Long, L. P. Siceloff, and H. T. Lundholm.

Questions in this test are designed to measure ability in elementary algebra through quadratics. Students who have had one year of high-school algebra may take the test. It may be used as a partial basis for assigning grades in first-year algebra or for determining the advisability of continuing in mathematics.

Cooperative Trigonometry Test, by J. A. Long and L. P. Siceloff.

Achievement in high-school trigonometry, requiring a half year's study, is measured.

Cooperative General Science Test (High School), by O. E. Underhill and S. R. Powers.

Questions in this test are designed to measure general achievement and information resulting from a year's study of general science in high school. It samples information in the fields of physics, chemistry, biology, physiology, botany, and geology.

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Cooperative Chemistry Test for High School Students, by V. H. Noll and S. R. Powers.

Achievement in high-school chemistry is measured, including information such as chemical terms, reactions, valences, formulas, and equations.

Cooperative Physics Test for High School Students, by H. W. Farwell.

Students who have had one year of physics in high school may be given this test. It measures information acquired in the high-school course.

Cooperative Biology Test for High School Students, by T. L. Fitzpatrick and S. R. Powers.

Most students taking this test should have completed one year of high-school biology. Some indication of relative achievement is helpful when advanced work is being considered.

Cooperative French Test, by G. Spaulding and P. Vaillant.

Multiple-choice responses are used in this test of achievement in French reading, vocabulary, and grammar. It may be given to persons whose training in French varies from one year in high school to four years in college.

Cooperative German Test, by M. V. Hespelt, E. H. Hespelt, and G. Spaulding.

It measures, in three parts, achievement in German reading, vocabulary, and grammar and is appropriate for students who have had from one to three years of high-school or college German.

Cooperative Spanish Test, by E. H. Hespelt, R. H. Williams, and G. Spaulding.

This test is designed for students who have studied Spanish in high school or college from one to three years and measures reading, vocabulary, and grammar.

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Cooperative Latin Test, by J. C. Kirtland, R. B. McJimsey,
and B M Allen

This test is designed for persons who have had one year of Latin or more. It is composed of questions on reading, vocabulary, and grammar.

Cooperative American History Test, by H. R. Anderson and
E. F Lindquist

There are three parts covering historical personages and terms and geographical terms, knowledge of dates and events, and historical judgment. Students who have had a high-school course in American history may be given the test.

Cooperative Modern European History Test, by H. R. Anderson and E. F Lindquist.

This test measures knowledge of historical personages, terms and events, and historical judgment, and is designed for those who have had a course in world or European history in high school.

Cooperative World History Test, by H. R. Anderson and
E F. Lindquist

This test measures the amount of material which the student has retained from a high-school general world history course.

Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test, by A. C. Eurich,
E. C. Wilson, G Hill, and collaborators.

The test is intended to measure the extent to which students are informed of significant current affairs in the fields of art, literature, government, international relations, politics, economics, and religion. It may be given to students in upper high school, college, or adult levels.

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Interest Questionnaire for High School Boys, by O. K. Garretson and P. M. Symonds.

This questionnaire contains 234 items covering such topics as occupations, school subjects, activities, things to own, magazines, prominent men in different fields of endeavor, qualities most admired in people, and activities of parents. Each item has three possible answers, *L* (like), *I* (indifferent), and *D* (dislike). The test is designed for use with boys in Junior High School.

Publisher: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York

Vocational Interest Blank for Men, by E. K. Strong, Jr., 1927.

The test is composed of 420 items covering occupations, amusements, school subjects, activities, peculiarities of people, and estimates of present abilities and characteristics. The individual indicates whether he likes, is indifferent to, or dislikes each item. Scoring is complicated and expensive, and may be done at Stanford University, the Columbia University Statistical Bureau, and the University of Minnesota Testing Bureau. The test indicates in general the occupational field in which the examinee is most likely to find satisfaction, provided he has the requisite aptitudes. Its use should probably be restricted to age levels above eighteen, and preferably to men above twenty years of age.

Publisher: Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.

Vocational Interest Blank for Women, by E. K. Strong, Jr., 1935.

The test is similar in content and purpose to the *Vocational Interest Blank for Men*, except that the items are designed for women. Norms are available for occupations such as lawyer, librarian, nurse, physician, high-school teacher of various specific fields or in general, artist, dentist, life-insurance saleswomen, office worker, social worker, and

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stenographer-secretary. The use of the test should be restricted to those seventeen years of age and over. Students should consider as possible fields of endeavor occupations in which they rate A or B+

Publisher Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif

The School Inventory, by Hugh M Bell, 1936.

The School Inventory consists of seventy-six questions which can be answered in fifteen minutes, and which are concerned with a pupil's attitudes toward school life. Each question is answered by marking Yes, No, or ?. It is primarily suitable for use with high-school students who have attended a particular school for at least three months. It will show which students are well adjusted to this school situation, and those who are in need of counseling. Special attention must be given to securing rapport so that students will give honest answers.

Publisher. Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif

The Adjustment Inventory, by Hugh M Bell, 1934.

The 140 questions in this test deal with behavior in the areas of home, health, social and emotional adjustments. The student evaluates his own behavior by checking or encircling Yes, No, or ?. Rapport must be established to secure frank and honest answers. A low score indicates satisfactory adjustment. The test may be used with high-school and college students, both men and women.

Publisher. Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif

Vineland Social Maturity Scale: Experimental Form B, by E. A. Doll, 1936.

This test is a measure of social development from birth to thirty years of age. It differs from other tests in that the answers do not necessarily come from the person being considered. The subject "may be examined by proxy

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through an informant who is intimately familiar with his capacities." As a by-product, the test may afford "a standard of guidance for the parent-informant who may unwittingly be restricting or pushing a child because of mistaken standards of age attainment "

Publisher: E. A. Doll, Extension Department of the Training School, Vineland, N. J.

Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers, by Dorothy M Andrew and Donald G. Paterson, 1931

The short form of this test consists of two parts a number-checking test, and a name-checking test, each having 200 paired items, one-half of which are exactly the same and the other half of which are different Speed and accuracy are measured. The test may be administered to men and women of all ages, although at present norms have been published for adult groups only. It may be used for those considering taking up clerical work

Publisher The Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Ave , New York.

Art Judgment Test, by N C. Meier and C. E. Seashore, 1929.

This test does not measure creative ability, but rather art appreciation and art judgment. The test may be given to students considering occupations not directly in the art fields, such as advertising, commercial photography, costume illustration, department store buying, and interior decoration, as well as the art occupations themselves

Publisher. Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

The McAdory Art Test, by Margaret (McAdory) Siceloff, 1929

A measurement of "good taste" and art judgment is secured through use of this scale. The test material consists

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of a book containing plates. The art subjects include textiles, clothing, furniture, architecture, and painting. Norms are available for age groups from ten years to adult and from grades 3 through 12.

Publisher Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Measures of Musical Talent, by C. E. Seashore, 1919 (Rev ed, 1939.)

It is possible with Seashore's records to obtain a reliable indication of the capacity for pitch and tonal memory. These two of the six tests meet the criteria for reliability and validity. The other tests in the battery are not as reliable. Each test is recorded on a double-disk phonograph record which is played to the subject. The administration of the test is an important factor in securing reliable results and requires a trained examiner. The test may be given to persons from grade 1 upward. It is especially significant for those considering music as a career or avocation.

Publisher C. H. Stoelting Company, 424 North Homan Ave, Chicago, Ill

Minnesota Mechanical Assembly Test, by D. G. Paterson, R. M. Elliott, L. D. Anderson, H. A. Toops, and E. Heidbreder, 1930.

This test consists of three boxes with several compartments each containing parts, which, when correctly assembled, form simple mechanical objects. A specified number of points are given when parts of an object are correctly assembled. The test was originally designed to measure the mechanical aptitude of boys of junior-high-school age, but it is also used with older students.

Publisher Marietta Apparatus Company, Marietta, Ohio

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Minnesota Spatial Relations Test, by D. G. Paterson, R. M. Elliott, L. D. Anderson, H. A. Toops, and E. Heidbreder, 1930.

This test consists of four boards with fifty-eight odd-shaped cutouts. The blocks for each board are placed in a definite order before the examinee, and he is instructed to place them in their proper places in the board as rapidly as possible. The score is the amount of time required to replace the blocks in the four boards. The test has proved to be a valid indicator of mechanical aptitude for junior-high-school boys in shop courses and is also adapted to older age groups for whom it yields fairly valid results. Its greatest usefulness is with students considering occupations generally regarded as requiring mechanical aptitude, such as auto mechanics, woodwork, sheet-metal work, general mechanics, and handicrafts.

Publisher: Marietta Apparatus Company, Marietta, Ohio

Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test, by R. Likert and W. H. Quasha, 1934.

This is a revision of the earlier paper form board which has overcome some of the limitations of the other test in regard to scoring. Items have been changed to the multiple-choice type. The examinee is presented, in each of the two comparable forms, with sixty-four items, each consisting of a diagram of from two to five disarranged parts of a geometrical figure. In each item there are five diagrams indicating how these parts appear if fitted together. Only one of the five choices is correct.

Publisher: Marietta Apparatus Company, Marietta, Ohio.

Minnesota Manual Dexterity Test (rev.), by W. A. Ziegler, 1933.

The apparatus for this test consists of a board measuring about thirty-nine and one-half inches by ten and one-half

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inches, containing four rows of fifty-eight round holes, and blocks which fit easily into these holes. The blocks are placed in a regular order beyond the board, and the examinee is instructed to replace the blocks in the board in a specified manner and as quickly as possible. Four trials are allowed and the time for each recorded. The test may be useful as a possible technique for selecting workers for factory jobs calling for rapid hand coordination. It may also be useful to the counselor who is dealing with high-school students leaving school to enter semiskilled and unskilled jobs requiring the type of dexterity being measured by this device.

Publisher Educational Test Bureau, Inc., 720 Washington Ave., S E, Minneapolis, Minn

Tweezer Dexterity Test, by Johnson O'Connor, 1928.

The apparatus for this test is a metal board, on one side of which are drilled 100 holes, each large enough to hold one small metal pin. A tray holds the pins, which are picked up one at a time with a pair of tweezers and placed in the holes as fast as possible. The reverse side is used to measure the speed with which the subject puts three pins at a time in larger holes. The test should be given to students planning to enter work requiring unusual steadiness of motor control and rapid eye-hand coordination in the use of fine tools. These vocations might include: laboratory work in physiology, biology, botany, and geology, surgery; dentistry, designing in engineering, drafting, and architecture, art work, dressmaking, watch and clock repairing and assembling, miniature instrument and spring assembling, jewel work; and machine and hand glass work.

Publisher Johnson O'Connor, Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, N. J.

Tests for Color Blindness, by S. Ishihara

A series of sixteen plates is used for this test, each plate being on white cardboard upon which is printed a colored

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circle with a diameter of three and one-half inches. The circle is formed of many colored dots, which reveal by their design certain numbers to persons with normal color vision, and different numbers to persons who are totally or partially color-blind. For example, a red 8 may have yellow dots beside it in such a way that to a person color-blind to red and green, the figure will look like a 3. Counselors may use it for students desiring to enter types of work calling for the ability to distinguish colors.

Publisher: C. H. Stoelting and Company, 424 North Homan Avenue, Chicago, Ill

Thurstone Tests of Primary Abilities, by L. L. Thurstone.

The seven primary abilities measured by this battery are as follows. number factor, visualizing two- and three-dimensional space; memory, word facility or fluence, verbal relations; perceptual speed, induction. The tests are a battery of six test booklets containing eighteen subtests which can be scored to provide a standard score for each subject in each of the seven primary abilities. The results may be recorded on a graph so as to yield a psychograph, or profile, for each person examined.

Publisher: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

INFORMATION COLLECTED IN THE INTERVIEW

The counselor's interviews with the student are important sources of diagnostic information. In a later chapter we shall discuss the advising functions performed in the interview, but at this point we emphasize the fact that the counselor may use the interview as a source of case data. In the face-to-face situation the counselor may supplement his objective information about the student by means of intelligent discussions of the student's habits, behavior, attitudes, and ambitions. If the counselor comes to this interview

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fortified by means of extensive case information, he may fill in the gaps in this information insofar as the student is able to give him the answers to searching questions. If the answers to these questions are checked against available information, the counselor may greatly improve the validity of his understanding of the student's problems and potentialities for readjustment.

If the counselor is so much an amateur as to interview the student without having first collected extensive case history information, he will be apt to form impressions and judgments in the interview which may prove to be false in the light of subsequent case work. To avoid this mistake, often harmful to the student, it behooves the counselor to inform himself about the student before attempting to interview him.

Because of the individuality of each interview, it is impossible to describe in detail the types of information the counselor may collect from this source. The counselor who has read the student's case record ahead of time will have in mind numerous items to be supplied and many data to be checked. One student may be questioned as to why he did not continue with his promising activities in radio. Another student will be asked why he abandoned his vocational goal of engineering. Still another student will be asked as to his persistent antisocial behavior in classes. The points to be covered in the interview are legion, and the alert counselor will produce a long list, while the unimaginative counselor will be content with a recital of the meager information readily available.

In using the interview as a method of collecting additional case information, the counselor must avoid a rapid-fire direct-questioning technique. Specifically, the counselor should not sit with the student's cumulative record form on the desk and write down the answers to questions. With practice the counselor will become adept at collecting the needed information by means of questions concealed in a

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discussional type of normal conversation carried on with the student doing most of the talking. In a later chapter we shall discuss techniques of conducting interviews, but at this point we emphasize the necessity of collecting information in a casual manner. Occasionally direct questions are necessary, but usually data are to be later sifted out of the student's conversational remarks

Recording Interview Notes.—In the course of the interview, the counselor may jot down short phrases from the student's remarks as aids to later recall of the complete answers. But the counselor should avoid appearing in the role of a court reporter anxious to get on paper every word uttered by the student.

Information collected in the interview should be recorded immediately after the student has left the interviewing room. Interviews should be scheduled so as to provide at least five uninterrupted minutes for this essential procedure. Perhaps some counselors possess phenomenal memories and can recall days or weeks later the details of an interview. All other counselors should immediately write out or dictate a running account of the essential points of the interview. The counselor should not try to compress his interview records into the microscopic cells of a printed form. Experience will reveal the wisdom of writing notes in a free expository style on two or three sheets of theme paper and filing them with date and names in an 8½ by 11 manila folder.

This account of the interview should include:

- 1 The problems discussed
- 2 The student's description of these problems and the circumstances and persons associated with or causing them
- 3 The student's attitude toward these problems and these persons, what outcomes and developments the student anticipates, what he has attempted to do to solve or relieve the problems, and other relevant information.
- 4 The remarks made in the interview by the counselor concerning these problems, the causes, and the student's attitudes

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5. The counselor's tentative *estimation* of the seriousness, causes, and possible developments to be anticipated

6 The new and additional information to be collected and the sources to be used

7 The suggested next steps discussed with the student and the outcomes of that discussion

8 The counselor's *tentative* ideas of what he and the student and other workers will need to do in a cooperative program designed to help the student work out a solution of his difficulties

COMMUNITY SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Every student has significant experiences outside of the classroom and beyond the school which influence his behavior and achievement in the school. Continuing quarrels with his father or antisocial behavior in the local pool-room may and usually do determine behavior in the classroom. For this reason the counselor has learned to adopt and adapt some of the techniques of the social worker. Within the limits of his resources in time and energy, the counselor searches for counseling information from community resources. If the school has a visiting teacher or social worker available, the counselor turns to this personnel worker for supplementary assistance. Through the visiting teacher important case data are collected from such community agencies as Y M C.A. or Y W C.A., welfare societies, relief departments, and the like. Oftentimes the counselor must work alone to supplement information gained from school resources.

We mention a few of these community resources and indicate the types of information they may contribute to the case study of the student being counseled. Each counselor must learn and relearn the specific persons and agencies to be used in his own community. Parents, interviewed in the home or invited to come to the counselor's office, may reveal the cause of the student's sullenness or overt antisocial behavior in their own expressed attitudes toward the student, his teachers, or the school as a whole. Parents who are too

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severe in discipline may cause bad behavior in the classroom. Parents who are too lax in the home or who are indifferent to their children may produce peculiarities in their children which tax the ingenuity of the counselor to remedy. If at all possible, the counselor should become acquainted with both parents in an effort to determine the cause of the student's behavior, whether it be normal or abnormal

In small communities the counselor can judge the influence upon the student's behavior of the local recreational centers, such as the pool hall, having once learned directly from the student the extent to which he frequents such an establishment

In communities having vigorous and constructive recreational organizations, such as Y.M C A.'s and Y.W C A.'s, the counselor can learn much about the student from the local secretaries. In like manner, the pastor of the student's church will contribute valuable case data concerning the student's religious, philosophic, and social attitudes and habits.

All of these community resources should be tapped by the counselor in an effort to learn of the whole child. When integrated with case data collected in the school, such information has a bearing upon the past and future adjustments of the student.

SUMMARY

If counseling is to be more than a casual and sociable half-hour visit with the counselor, intensive preparation must precede the counseling interview. Essentially this means that the counselor should collect and absorb much information about the student before that interview takes place. An informed counselor will be far more useful to the student than one who arrives at the office equipped only with an unenlightened sympathy.

Information about the student is collected from many sources in the school and community and by means of many techniques, procedures, and methods. The collection of this

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information is comparable to the case history taking of the social case worker except that at the present time few counselors look for information from out-of-school sources and others limit themselves only to data collected in interviews with the student. Counselors could profit greatly from studying this phase of social case work.

Although each student case develops in a unique manner, yet there are a number of general procedures and techniques used by counselors for all cases with appropriate modifications. These techniques have been described briefly in connection with the types of data needed for counseling. The ways in which these data may be used were also noted. For more technical descriptions of these techniques, the reader is referred to the selected references.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. Why is it important that the counselor collect information about the student before the interview begins?
2. What is a case study?
3. In what respects does the case study in counseling differ from that in social case work?
4. Who participates in the making of a guidance case study?
5. What are the differences between a case study and a cumulative record?
6. What main topics should be covered in a case study?
7. Why should all of these topics be covered regardless of the nature of the problem causing the student to seek counseling?
8. What counseling and diagnostic leads or cues can a counselor derive from school marks?
9. What are anecdotal records, and why are they important in counseling?
10. Contrast and compare anecdotal records and personality tests with respect to their value in diagnosing personality problems.
11. What are the essential features of cumulative records?
12. Contrast the characteristics and values for counseling of cumulative records and the counselor's interview notes.
13. Why should the counselor seek information from agencies and individuals outside of the school?
14. What values for guidance are found in psychological testing?

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15. What are the advantages of cumulative or repeated testing?
16. Are there any advantages for counselors in progressive schools in tests which do not measure some of the outcomes of new-type curriculums?
17. Describe briefly how the counselor should collect information by means of interviews with the student

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CHAPTER VIII

Counseling Students

THAT phase of the student personnel program which involves interviewing and advising students individually is called counseling. Students are assisted one by one, in contrast with the mass techniques of the group guidance and homeroom classes. This is the personalized and individualized phase of personnel work comparable to the individualized methods of teaching used in the instructional program of the school.

At the present time there are several types of counseling functions performed by a number of school workers. *Advisers* assist students with the selection of and registration in classes; teachers and administrators usually perform this function in addition to their other duties. *Teacher-counselors* assist individuals to develop intellectually and socially through the medium of personalized classroom instruction. *Counselors*, usually differing widely in specialized training and effectiveness, assist students with problems of vocational choice, educational achievement, and personality development. *Specialists* provide technical and professional assistance with problems of health, severe emotional disturbances, and many other problems.

In many schools one person functions in two or more of these capacities. For purposes of exposition, however, we shall describe separately these four types of counseling workers.

REGISTRATION ADVISERS

In many schools the function of registering students in classes and the enforcement of curriculum regulations are

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performed by administrators or by teachers acting as agents of the administrators. That these are or could become counseling functions few will deny. If the task of teachers is "to take the student *as he is* and to select from his broad field of instruction those experiences which the pupil in question needs for his maximal development,"¹ then it follows that rigid adherence to predetermined blanket prescription is entirely out of place in the school. It likewise follows that assisting the student to register in classes should become a personnel function and not an administrative one. The proper courses of study cannot be selected unless the counselor and the student understand the latter's capabilities and needs. This means that counseling should precede registration advising.

At the present time, however, such advising procedures are followed in few schools. Local, state, and regional educational organizations prescribe rather rigidly both the content of courses and the sequence in which students must absorb this content. Under such prescriptive conditions registration advising becomes a mere routine clerical task of enforcing regulations. Little knowledge of the student's abilities and needs is required. The former is assumed, and the latter has been legislated uniformly for all students. The only reference to the student involves questioning him as to which of several curriculums he thinks he wants and inspecting school records to determine whether he has met the formal prerequisites.

Obviously, this is not counseling but rather administration of a law-enforcement type. But one may anticipate a major reform in these procedures as schools develop more effective instructional and personnel programs. As blanket prescription is superseded by counseling, registration advising will

¹ HAND, HAROLD C., "Trends in Educational Theory and Practice Which Affect the Work of All Teachers," in *Challenge of Education*, by the Stanford University Education Faculty, pp. 80-81, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

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become a function of counselors. This function will not be restricted to a few days preceding the beginning of classes but will be carried on throughout the school year. As a normal part of counseling, the counselor will assist the student to select those courses of study which will provide him with the needed experiences and training. Moreover, as we break away from the ritual of clock-hours and timeserving in education, students will be promoted and transferred at irregular times and not merely once or twice a year.

Such a radical change in registration procedures and the consequent integration with counseling will not take place overnight. Many fundamental changes must precede such a stage. Not the least of these preliminary steps is the establishment, under the existing system, of an adequate counseling system. By their good deeds personnel workers must first demonstrate to school administrators that their counseling methods will prove more adequate than the present registration procedures. This can be done only by means of the thoroughly sound counseling of a few trial cases. At the present time most administrators can be persuaded to relax the rules provided that the counselor has a reasonable case and the data to establish it.

TEACHER-COUNSELORS

One of the most widely used phrases in educational terminology is "the individualization of education." Essentially this phrase refers to the need for adjusting instructional methods to the needs, interests, motivations, background, and aptitudes of individual students. This movement is a protest against the mass regimentation of the slow with the fast, the dull with the bright, the sullen with the happy students in utter disregard of their differences. Teaching all students in the same manner merely exaggerates these differences and does not level down the bright and level up the dull.

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Attempts to individualize instruction are not a recent development.¹ New and special classes, ability grouping, remedial instruction, and many other developments of the past testify to the sincere efforts of educators to assist individual students with their learning problems through the medium of the classroom. From the personnel point of view, the remedial function of teachers is a counseling function. From the administrative point of view it is a phase of instruction. From both points of view it is a necessary adjunct to group instruction. The personnel worker can help the teacher with many types of remediation and, therefore, should be expected by the administrator to play a part in the school's program of remediation. In few schools, however, have counseling and instruction been integrated with respect to remediation of classroom learning problems. To the teacher's efforts at remediation through analysis of learning errors and special tutorial assistance, the counselor can contribute his techniques for improvement of motivation to learn, the alleviation of emotional distraction, the selection of stimulating educational and vocational goals with the resulting increase in the student's desire to learn, and special assistance with development of more effective habits of studying and learning. Oftentimes the counselor is the only member of the school's staff who is prepared to deal with problems of reading disabilities and other deficiencies in basic skills.

Ideally, the teacher-counselor would be professionally prepared to do all the necessary types of remediation with his students. In actual practice, however, the teacher-counselor must often call upon the counselor and the clinical psychologist for technical assistance with remedial problems which are beyond his capacity. Remedial instruc-

¹ COURTIS, S. A., "Contributions of Research to the Individualization of Instruction," *The Scientific Movement in Education*, pp. 201-210, Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938.

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tion, therefore, proves to be another point of coordination and cooperation between classroom instruction and personnel work. It is a major responsibility of all personnel workers to inform teachers of the many types of assistance available for classroom learning problems. Personnel work is not restricted to out-of-class problems of students.

To these efforts in individualization have been added techniques of "personalizing" instruction. Students are to be aided in their learning by means of a new type of personal relationship with teachers.¹ This newer movement is a protest against the mechanical type of teaching students by drill methods either in groups or individually. Even learning textbook information has been conceded to be more than lecturing and reading followed by recitations. The facilitating effect of the teacher's personality upon the student's learning in all areas of his life now receives major emphasis in educational circles.

Thus the modern teacher uses radically improved instructional techniques in the classroom to assist students in their normal development—intellectual, social, civic, and emotional. Teaching thus becomes an increasingly important method of assisting students. To differentiate this new type of teacher from the former drill master—oftentimes concerned chiefly with the memorization of textbook facts and the maintenance of passive behavior in the classroom—the term teacher-counselor is used.²

From the viewpoint of personnel workers, this new type of teacher takes on the characteristics and functions of a special type of counselor. He performs personnel functions and uses specialized techniques to assist students with many problems of development. He directs his efforts toward the

¹ PRESCOTT, DANIEL A., *Emotion and the Educative Process*, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1938

² Stanford University Education Faculty, *The Challenge of Education*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1937

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same goals as those of other personnel workers. His philosophy of education and point of view is similar, if not identical, with that of other educational workers we have previously called personnel workers. This latter term we now broaden to include teacher-counselors. Other workers in education could reverse our position and refer to personnel workers as new and specialized types of teachers.

No matter the title used, we see that all workers direct their efforts toward the same goals. What differentiates them from each other is the specialized methods and techniques used to achieve common objectives. The teacher-counselor, our topic of discussion in this section, uses special techniques in the classroom in dealing with certain common individual problems of students. He is his own counseling specialist in this respect. As a teacher-counselor he seeks to perform counseling functions in the classroom and by means of the curriculum. In many cases his techniques prove to be adequate and effective in stimulating the normal development of students. In other cases he calls for supplementary assistance from the educational workers we call personnel specialists. These latter specialists likewise call upon teachers for supplementary assistance. Thus we see that no one type of educational worker has a monopoly upon personnel functions, each supplements the efforts of others by means of the use of specialized techniques.

More Than Teacher-counselors and Specialists Are Needed.—Some educational leaders seek to improve classroom instruction through the adoption of counseling and other personnel functions and techniques. In effect they seek to persuade and train teachers to perform most, if not all, counseling functions in the classroom and as integral parts of instruction. The personnel worker looks upon this attempt to reform teaching with both approval and disapproval. The personnel movement, along with other developments, has evolved some techniques which may be

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adopted by the classroom teacher to individualize and personalize his teaching. Such adoptions should be made. But it does not follow that the teacher can take over all counseling techniques and that the counselor, functioning outside of the classroom, can be discharged from his duties. Even when all teachers have been trained and persuaded to become teacher-counselors, there will still be need for personnel workers to perform other counseling functions. We do not refer only to so-called personnel specialists—doctor, social worker, psychiatrist, psychologist—but also to school counselors. It is evident that classroom teachers cannot perform the duties of personnel specialist as a part of teaching. It will be equally evident upon further analysis of the situation that classroom teachers cannot perform all of the functions of a counselor as an integral part of instruction. Not all the counselor's functions are directly related to classroom instruction and others are only indirectly related—even in the most progressive curriculum. Even the best of classroom instructional techniques are not adequate for assisting students with some types of problems. Likewise students need personal, one-to-one assistance with many problems, both those directly related to the classroom and others indirectly related.

Even the most progressive and well-trained teacher cannot provide all of the personal and professional assistance necessary to youth. Teachers do not have sufficient time, for one thing, to use both classroom technique and personal interviews in working with all of their students. Few informed educators would argue that either technique alone is sufficient to assist youth with problems of citizenship, acquiring understanding and knowledge, emotional development, and many others. The personnel worker contends that in assisting adolescents, the personal interview is as necessary a technique as are classroom techniques. Obviously, teachers must do all they can to maintain personal relationships with

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students, but there is not sufficient time for the type of interviewing which a well-trained counselor does.

A second and more important reason for employment of both teacher-counselors and school counselors is found in the fact that teachers cannot perform the important function of coordinating all the school's and community's resources in their case work with students. Not only must the counselor spend hours interviewing a student, but also he must devote as many hours to interviewing and getting the assistance of personnel specialists in the school and community. The teacher cannot do effective work in the classroom and at the same time devote the necessary hours to these out-of-class counseling functions which are equally necessary in assisting youth. This, of course, does not preclude the possibility that counselors may carry a part-time teaching load and, in this connection, function as teacher-counselors for the students in their own classes.

We contend, therefore, that in high schools an effective counseling program will include both teacher-counselors and counselors in addition to personnel specialists. We contend also that these counselors must not narrowly specialize in educational and vocational guidance but must be prepared to assist with a score or more of other adolescent problems including the problem of developing a normal personality.

A quite different situation obtains in the elementary schools. On that level teacher-counselors and personnel specialists may well perform all of the needed counseling functions. With children many counseling functions are best performed as a normal part of classroom teaching by the teacher. Specialists are available for technical assistance. But in the junior and senior high schools problems of development and adjustment become relatively more complex and demand more private and personalized types of assistance supplementary to those performed by the teacher in the classroom.

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Thus in high school the counselor should assume some of the counseling functions performed by the elementary-school teacher. The counselor stands between the teacher-counselor and the personnel specialist, supplementing and coordinating the efforts of each and devoting much time to the use of one-to-one interviews with the student. To expect the teacher-counselor to perform all counseling functions except those of the specialist is to demand too much of any one educational worker and to put too much faith in the effectiveness of instructional techniques even when these are supplemented by the teacher's casual and infrequent personal interviews.

Functions of the Teacher-counselor.—To return to our discussion of the teacher-counselor, we may describe briefly some of the functions embraced in his instructional duties and has outlined a number of the functions of this new type of teacher. We are here concerned with those which relate directly to the counseling program. One might infer from the following quotations, however, that the teacher-counselor actually is a professionally-trained counselor if not a clinical psychologist. We doubt, for example, that teachers will or should become trained to make all of the diagnoses listed as within their function. Certainly the teacher-counselor must "know his student," but his depth or extent of knowledge need not be as refined and technical as that of either a counselor or a clinical psychologist. Indeed, his knowledge cannot be that extensive unless he has been professionally trained both in his teaching specialty and in advanced clinical psychology. We make this point to emphasize our contention that counseling and other personnel functions must be studied, classified, and assigned in recognition of degrees or levels of technicality of these functions.

Let us look first at the situation with reference to guidance. The necessity of placing the teacher in the center of the picture is coming to be recognized in an increasing number of school situations in which

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the problems associated with the adequate guidance of youth are vigorously being attacked. This means that the teacher in the modern school must be well informed concerning and skilled in the techniques and procedures of guidance. He must be qualified to discover the interests, abilities, perplexities, and needs of his students through a continuous diagnosis of their hobbies, work experiences, health status, likes and dislikes, successes and failures, emotional strengths and weaknesses, ambitions, attitudes, characteristic modes of behavior, home environments, and a score of other items fruitful of revealing information. He must be able to draw upon the resources of his broad field or fields of instruction to provide the learning experiences revealed as necessary or desirable for his pupils by his diagnoses. He must be qualified informally to counsel continuously with his students in helping them to plan intelligently to live abundantly and to resolve the numerous personal and other problems with which children or youth are typically confronted ¹

To continue with our discussion, we may repeat briefly some of the counseling functions of teachers which we have mentioned elsewhere in this text. Not the least important function concerns case data collected by the teacher. Teachers observe students in a great variety of situations and are, therefore, able to collect and contribute valuable information regarding social adjustment, citizenship habits, and intellectual interests. When recorded in the form of anecdotal records or presented orally in staff meetings, these data are indispensable supplements to case data collected directly by counselors.

Another counseling function deals with direct assistance to students. Teachers may assist in carrying out a program of action agreed upon by student and counselor. Special classwork may help the student to become oriented with regard to vocational interests and stimulated to develop intellectually. Personalized relationships between teacher and student may prove to be effective therapy for emotional disturbances. There is also one other type of relationship between the teacher-counselor and other types of guidance

¹ HAND, *op cit*, pp 80-81

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workers. The point of view of the counselor and his individualized attention to students may help the teacher to become interested in more than rote learning in the classroom and in more than intellectual development. This broadening of the teacher's point of view may lead to a revitalization of instruction with great benefit to both student and teacher.

In view of these desirable results, it is imperative that the barriers between counselors and teachers be torn down. Both the uniqueness of each and the reciprocal relationships between them should be emphasized and implemented by school administrators as well as by directors of formal guidance programs.

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

To the school counselor falls the major responsibility for using the personal interview as a medium for assisting students individually. These interviews are the locus of operations for the counselor much as the classroom is the place in which the teacher-counselor performs his counseling functions. But the conducting of personal interviews does not complete the full inventory of the counselor's techniques. To be effective, the counselor must utilize the many techniques outlined in Chap. VII for the collection of case data. For counseling to be effective, these techniques must be used before the personal interview. Within the limitations of school and community resources and the counselor's work load, a reasonably complete case study of each student needs to be made as a normal phase of counseling.

Proctor outlines the following major functions of the counselor:

- 1 To collect information about each of his counselees
- 2 To help organize, and to teach, group guidance classes in which students are given information about courses of study and training schools, vocational opportunities, social-civic activities, and health and recreational activities.

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3. To conduct personal interviews in which the above types of information are used in the solution of the student's own problems.
4. To assist teachers and administrators to readjust and reorganize the school curriculum so that it leads to better student adjustments.
5. To study the student's community environment so that maladjustments are corrected and these resources are used
6. To assist students to discover and enroll in those courses of study and training schools which offer most opportunity for the students' optimum adjustment and development
7. To assist in the development of an effective placement bureau designed to help students find employment
8. To follow up counselees and assist them in adjustments to new problems and readjustments to old ones.
9. To utilize the services of personnel specialists (physicians, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, etc.) in counseling work ¹

The reader will note that, contrary to the current practice, the counselor is not limited to interviewing students about their choices of vocations. The task of counseling extends beyond that one type of problem, important though it is. The counselor deals with a great many types of problems—failures in classwork, social timidity, inadequate finances, conflicts in the home, emotional disturbances, and a host of other problems. The counselor assists by using his own training and experience and by calling upon other school and personnel workers for supplementary services. In some respects his task is similar to that of the social case worker who focuses the placement resources of the community upon the problems of an unemployed adult. The social worker does not necessarily search for a job for her client but may call upon the local office of the Federal-State Employment Service. She does not prescribe medication for her clients but uses the available medical officer. If, however, the social worker discovers that she herself is qualified to advise

¹ PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN, "The Role of the Counselor," in *The Challenge of Education*, by the Stanford University Education Faculty, pp 358-363, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937

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and assist directly with certain problems of her client, she does so without calling upon other workers for assistance.

In similar manner the counselor studies the student to discover his needs for assistance and then calls upon teachers, administrators, and anyone else who is qualified to provide the necessary assistance. The counselor, however, puts together all of the information from these sources and attempts to study the student as a whole personality. Thus we see that he coordinates case information as well as personnel specialists.

One other point is important. Each well-trained counselor is not only a "generalist" in terms of his coordinating function, he is also qualified to provide one or more types of specialized services. In such cases he uses his own technical resources as well as those of other specialists. He may be professionally trained to assist students with respect to reading disabilities, ineffective study methods, choice of an occupation, and many other problems. His own training determines his technical skills; some counselors are qualified only as generalists

In the past and to a wide extent today, counselors have neglected their generalistic functions and have restricted their efforts to providing assistance in the choice of an occupation. In many circles the term counselor is narrowly used with the prefix vocational, and other functions are neglected or relegated to a position of secondary importance. There is no weakness in this position if the counselor is seeking to become a specialist in vocational guidance. Such specialists are as much needed as are other types since the problem of choosing an occupation has its technical phases. The type of counselor, however, which we are describing is much more than a specialist in vocational guidance. In making this point, we should avoid the mistake of neglecting altogether the function of vocational guidance. This extreme position appears to have been taken by some

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progressive educators preoccupied with problems of emotional development. To meet the great number of students' problems, we need both general counselors and a large number of specialized workers

In the preceding paragraphs we have discussed some of the important functions of the personnel worker usually called the school counselor. Our discussion has been phrased as though all counselors devoted all of their professional activities to making case studies, to interviewing students, and to doing case work. The tenor of this discussion was determined by the necessity of describing counseling functions. In actual practice the counselor may perform many other functions—instructional or administrative. A teacher of English may serve as a teacher-counselor with his own students and as a general counselor with other students. The principal or superintendent may administer and coordinate the many personnel workers and at the same time counsel students. The clinical psychologist may provide technical assistance to counselors and at the same time give general guidance to many students. Each school must delegate counseling functions to workers in terms of available resources and the professional training and competence of each. Very few, if any, schools can find financial resources to employ a worker for each personnel function. Many school workers must "double up" in performing these many functions. To the administrator it should be apparent that the significant point is not to bewail our inability to employ all the needed specialists but rather to attempt to organize the personnel program so that provision is made for all of the vital functions.

But the mere naming of an untrained teacher as counselor will not of necessity result in effective counseling. We have argued in a previous section that counseling functions are specialized and require professional training and practical experience. Graduate work in tests and clinical experience

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in testing, knowledge of available literature on occupational information and mental hygiene, supervised experience in interviewing and counseling, some first-hand acquaintance or experience in business or industry—these and many other factors are indispensable in the training of a counselor. The personality of the counselor is of equal importance, and it adds much to effectiveness if the counselor has himself experienced personal counseling of a high quality as part of his own college experiences

Specialization in Counseling.—We have said that the school counselor supplements the teacher-counselor and utilizes the personnel specialists in dealing with many types of student's problems. In this respect he is a generalist or a general practitioner of counseling. But rarely do counselors in schools today provide such a variety of services. In most cases counselors are trained to deal only with a few types of problems. It is fair to say that most counselors concentrate upon the choice of a vocation and selection of an appropriate training program. Problems of reading disabilities, family conflicts, emotional disturbances, and personality development, to name a few, are dealt with, if at all, only incidentally as they affect the student's vocational problems. At the present time most counselors are vocational counselors.

In a previous section we pointed out the tendency of some educational leaders to persuade classroom teachers to take over all of the counseling functions. If that observation be true, then in large part it has come about because of the persistent concentration of counselors upon problems of vocational guidance to the exclusion of other equally important problems. That this narrow concentration is widespread may be seen from a scanning of the writings of leaders in the guidance associations. According to these leaders the functions of counselors are defined in terms of educational and vocational guidance—and the educational guidance is restricted to the choice of an appropriate training program.

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Even problems of remediation in study habits and skills are not included among the counselor's functions

There are historical justifications for this narrowing of functions. Guidance, in respect to counseling, developed out of attempts to deal with the choice of an occupation. Attempts to develop an adequate type of assistance for this problem have produced noteworthy results, and vocational guidance counselors have made worth-while contributions to secondary education. The vocational problem is so important and so complex that specialized assistance is needed, and every school should employ at least one counselor who has received special training in this field. Other counselors should be equally well trained to deal with problems of remedial instruction or mental hygiene or other adjustment needs of students. This does not mean that counselors need or should specialize in the same way and to the same extent as do doctors, social workers, and psychologists. The counselor trained to deal with vocational problems is a different type of specialist although he may well develop into a personnel specialist if he is qualified.

The future development of personnel work cannot be charted. But it seems probable that school administrators will seek to employ counselors who are trained to function as generalists in dealing with all types of problems, and who, in addition, are qualified to do special work with at least one type of problem. This type of specialization is desirable in so far as it rests upon similar factors which operate to cause a general practitioner in medicine to develop special (but not highly specialized) skill in treating certain types of ailments. If these factors cause professional specialization on the part of the counselor, then he may or may not change his title and his job to that of clinical psychologist. Certainly, if we are to have specialists of this type, they should come from the ranks of counselors or at least have had extensive general counseling experience.

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It may be several decades before school administrators are persuaded to employ counselors with varied special training. In the meantime it is necessary that all school counselors be trained to deal with many different types of students' problems. Both vocational guidance and mental hygiene—the two most frequent areas of narrow and mutually exclusive specialization observed today among counselors—are equally necessary phases of a counselor's training if he is to deal effectively with students' problems.

Counseling Techniques.—To be effective in assisting students, counselors should not depend upon casual and short conferences with students held in the hallways or in a classroom with other students listening in on the conversation. If the student is expected to discuss his experiences and problems frankly and in detail, then he is entitled to the courtesy of privacy. The best counseling is not done in a goldfish bowl. If possible, the counselor should have a private office made attractive and pleasant by means of drapes, pictures, or other decorative means. If an office must be shared with another counselor or teacher, then office hours should be arranged so that the office mate is not present when students come for an interview. Even in most crowded school buildings an office may be constructed inexpensively with soundproof materials in an unused end of a hallway. If possible, the counselor should be located in an office near the central files of cumulative records from which he will abstract much case data.

Counseling interviews with students should be scheduled by the clerks in the main office or by the counselor himself. But he should not have to interrupt his interview with one student to make an appointment with another. Appointments should be spaced or set far enough in advance so that the counselor has sufficient time to read the cumulative record folder and his own file of information before interviewing the student. Even with well-known students it is

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necessary to refresh one's memory and to note points to be covered in the forthcoming interview. Occasionally emergency situations must take immediate precedence over everything and interviews be held without such preparation.

The length of interviews must be determined by the counselor's work style and the student's preference, but they usually will be at least one-half hour and not longer than a class period. The number of interviews to be held with each student is determined by the progress made and the quality of rapport established and maintained. Above all else the counselor should not so routinize his counseling relationships that an interview is required by him each month or each semester during which interview he monotonously checks off one at a time all of the possible problems the student could have. The counselor should seek to cultivate a desire on the part of the student to ask voluntarily for an interview when he feels the need for it. If counseling is more than advising about registration, the student will want to come in frequently to keep him informed of developments. Routine checking interviews should be infrequent. No attempt should be made to interview all students the same number of times each year.

The number of students a counselor can work with in a school year depends upon many factors. Some counselors can carry a case load of five hundred—and run the risk of doing a very perfunctory and ineffective type of counseling. At the present time most counselors are forced to carry far too heavy a case load. More effective counseling would result from the practice of inviting students, by announcements in homerooms, to ask for their first counseling interview. Not all will respond, among them some students who need assistance. But the process of seeking assistance voluntarily usually brings the student to the counselor in a more receptive frame of mind than the administrative practice of notifying students they have been assigned to a counselor

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The counselor seeks to assist all students who need aid, but he can do this only if the student wants to be aided. Complete coverage of all students is not so important as doing effective work with those who desire to be counseled. If the counselor is actually effective in the lives of the student, the number of volunteers will increase until most of the students are included. Arbitrary assignment to a counselor may be efficient administration, but it is not desirable in personnel work.

Moreover, counseling interviews, while delightful and exhilarating experiences, are also fatiguing. The counselor must come to them alert and emotionally relaxed. This he cannot do if he is forced to interview twenty students each day in addition to teaching his own classes, telephoning and interviewing other school and community workers to collect information, and planning suggestions for each student. Without realizing that counseling, like teaching, requires hours of preparation and is fatiguing, administrators sometimes require too heavy a work load.

No two counseling interviews develop in an identical manner. The personalities of student and counselor and the character of the problems discussed demand that the counselor be sufficiently resourceful to vary his procedures. The counselor lets the student take the lead in conversation and discussion. In the highly individual development of the interview, the counselor will attempt only to make certain that the direction of the development is toward a better understanding of the student and his problems. If this requires ten interviews, so be it.

Since the personal element plays such an important part in counseling, the counselor uses all of his experience and skill in establishing friendly relationships early in the first interview. This is usually called establishing rapport and must be done even sometimes when the student has been known in teaching relationships. The counselor cannot assume that previously

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established rapport will always be transferred to the intimate counseling relationship.

Establishing rapport is very much the same problem as becoming intimately acquainted with persons in other relationships of a face-to-face nature. As is true in these other connections, it is impossible to describe by words the subtle techniques used for this purpose. These techniques can be demonstrated, but adequate descriptive words are lacking. The counselor must secure internship training to learn many of these subtle phases of counseling. However, some of the references listed below will provide a better understanding of what rapport is and of some of the simpler techniques.¹

The counselor should not expect to achieve complete understanding of the student and of the needed action within the confines of a single interview. Even though many students desire to solve problems in one interview, the counselor must move slowly. But the student should have achieved some satisfying progress in each interview even though the amount be less than is desired. Much skill is often required to help the student avoid plunging headlong into the superficially evident ways out of his difficulties. With some students a few interviews lead to a tentative plan of action; with others the best plan dawns on the student only after many conferences. Some next steps should be planned, however, during each interview.

It should be unnecessary to enlarge upon the point that in interviewing the lecture method of talking to students is inappropriate. A friendly, personal but not sentimental conversation should characterize the discussions. Without pressing by staccato questioning, the counselor should seek to encourage the student to talk freely, bringing him back to

¹ SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M., "Securing Rapport in Interviewing," *Teachers College Record*, May, 1938, 39 707-722

WILLIAMSON, E. G., *How to Counsel Students*, pp. 131-133, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939

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essential points if and when he wanders vocally. At the appropriate time when the student asks for an answer to a question, the counselor should take the conversational lead. To say that the counselor should not do all of the talking does not imply that he should imitate the Sphinx during the entire interview

The Counselor's Resources for Assisting Students.—In the preceding chapter we discussed resources and techniques to be used by the counselor in collecting information about the student and his difficulties—past, present and future. We turn now to the resources available in doing something about these problems.

In much the same way, and for similar reasons, that the counselor needs to collect information concerning the student and his capabilities, he must also gather information about the resources of the school and community for effecting desirable changes in the student's attitudes and practices. No counselor should expect to do the whole task of counseling. He should expect to enlist the aid of others in assisting the student to master problem situations and effect satisfactory adjustments. Every school and community has a variety of such resources. Local business and professional men can assist in informing students about occupational information. Social agencies can assist in improving financial conditions of the family which interfere with scholastic and social adjustment of the student. The same agencies may help to effect better recreational habits. Teachers and school administrators will cooperate with students in introducing timid students into the normal social activities of the school. Principals will cooperate by waiving unreasonable scholastic requirements if the counselor can present a reasonable argument. State mental hygiene societies will cooperate in getting serious cases of emotional disturbances into the hands of qualified psychiatrists. State employment offices and local merchants will seek to help the student secure

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needed employment. Nearby college personnel officers will assist with complex cases of student maladjustment.

These and many other community and school resources are available to assist the alert and effective counselor who seeks assistance. Such resources will not be discovered merely by a thumbing of the telephone directory but rather by persistent inquiry directed to the leaders in any sized community and school. Within the school itself the resourceful counselor will discover untapped sources of assistance in teachers who have had business or industrial experience outside of the teaching field "Seek and ye shall find" should be the motto of the counselor who needs help in assisting students with their problems.

A number of school and community resources are listed, with the type of assistance they can give to students if the counselor will but enlist their cooperation by word of mouth, mail, or telephone

- 1 The student's teachers, for remedial assistance with specific study and learning difficulties, for information about educational and occupational opportunities, for anticipated difficulties with advanced classes in high school and college in specific courses, for personalized encouragement regarding intellectual growth and development as an individual—in some cases substitute affection for a lack in student-parent relationships

- 2 The sponsors of activities and student government for assistance in inducting the student into activities and giving him personal encouragement in his attempts to grow emotionally and become an active citizen of the school

- 3 The student's pastor, teachers, athletic coach, or anyone else having the student's confidence for assistance in thinking through moral, religious, and philosophic problems

- 4 The librarian, teachers, and local business and professional men for interviews concerning occupational information

- 5 Where available, the manager of the local Federal-State Employment Service and local employers for part-time or permanent employment

- 6 The student's parents for cooperation in development of new relationships in the home, new attitudes in the student, and per-

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sonalized encouragement of the student's efforts to develop his own individuality

Recording Interview Notes.—In a preceding section of this chapter, the importance of recording interview notes immediately after the interview was stressed. We repeat here for emphasis that the counselor seriously decreases his effectiveness by failing to record the essential points of his conferences with the student. In later interviews he may find himself confusing the student by contradicting himself or remembering the wrong test score. These interview notes should be the personal property of the counselor and should not be filed in any place where unprofessional eyes will scan them. If the counselor knows that his notes are to be seen only by himself or by other professional workers, then he will more readily commit to paper valuable memoranda instead of writing on the cumulative records uninteresting drivel similar to that found occasionally in some schools (see pages 179-180).

Placement Counseling.—In Chap. II we discussed the serious problems confronting students as they leave school and seek employment. It is not a figment of imagination which causes many a student to approach this problem in fear and trembling. The consequences of failure to find a job or of finding the wrong job are evident round about him among the adults of his community. The school, therefore, is under obligation, largely unfulfilled as yet, to assist the student at this point if it is to protect its efforts at teaching from the certain waste if he fails to get a job.¹

In some large schools a placement bureau is maintained and manned by workers trained to instruct in how and where to seek employment. All too frequently this bureau is part of the school's administrative office or attached to an instructional department, for example, the commercial or industrial department. Under such an arrangement placement work

¹ *Occupational Adjustment*, Interim Report, Occupational Education Tour for Superintendents, National Occupational Conference, New York, 1938

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will often be performed in a routine manner without regard to the student's welfare or in ignorance of his abilities and needs. It should be apparent, however, that placement is an integral part of counseling, particularly of vocational guidance. Such a placement bureau should, therefore, be closely attached to the counseling staff, both administratively and functionally.

In most schools what placement work is to be done will be the direct responsibility of the school counselor. As a part of his efforts to assist the whole student he will seek to understand financial needs and to help him find part-time work while in school and permanent employment at graduation time. Because of his intimate and extensive knowledge of the student's capabilities and needs, the counselor will be able to help him determine a desirable type of work and will suggest where to seek employment. As is true of other types of counseling, the school counselor seeks to understand the student before he sends him to an employer. He avoids blanket prescriptions in placement work as he does in counseling about other problems.

In an increasing number of schools a new and special type of placement officer is employed. This is the *coordinator* employed with funds from the federal and state governments. These coordinators usually limit their placement and vocational guidance activities to a small number of students enrolled in the industrial, commercial, and other practical training courses. This placement work is designed to assist students with the problems of transferring from school to work, and is a vitally necessary type of personnel work.¹ Students are prepared for employment by part-time work during the school year in local shops, offices, and stores. As more funds become available, this type of assistance will be

¹ EDGERTON, A. H., "Guidance in Transition from School to Community Life," *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, pp. 229-278, Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Chap. VIII, Part I, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938.

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extended to other types of students. The coordination of this type of placement work with counseling and other phases of the personnel program is a problem facing administrators and counselors.

The school counselor, functioning as a placement counselor, maintains an up-to-date file of possible job opportunities in the community. This file should contain not only the employer's name and type of business but also the types of workers he employs. Also contained in the file is extensive information on the special requirements and qualifications the employer demands or desires in his applicants for jobs.

If there is a branch office of the Federal-State Employment Service in the counselor's community, he establishes contacts with the staff members and refers students to them for specialized assistance. As in other fields, the counselor uses community resources when they are available.

In referring students to an employer, the counselor should personalize the referral by telephone or written note. Information about the student's qualification, school record, activities, and work experiences should be given to the employer. The personalized introduction assists the student if he has first been counseled in the proper department to be used in applying for a job. A student sometimes fails to secure employment merely because he carelessly forgets to remove his hat or to adjust his necktie when entering an office. It is of no value for the counselor to argue with the employer that the position of either a hat or a necktie is not a valid indicator of ability; some employers believe otherwise and are swayed by their intuitions. The student must be coached in the most effective ways of arranging his wearing apparel.

COUNSELING SPECIALISTS

Most educators now agree that some types of students' problems are of such a nature and the needed treatment or

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therapy is so technical that counselors with highly technical training are needed. We point out once more that this point of view does not imply that these specialists perform all types of counseling functions. Particularly, this does not mean that teachers should be required to turn over to such specialists all counseling activities. There are many personnel functions and the performance of each requires specialized training differing in complexity and time required to learn. While we described these functions by giving the worker a class name, yet we recognize that some workers should have several titles since they perform several functions.

We preface this discussion of counseling specialists with the above note because of the prevalent hesitation of some school administrators to admit these specialists to the ranks of educational workers. By thus urging untrained teachers to perform specialized counseling services, these educators fail to provide effective assistance to many students.

Such a negative attitude toward counseling specialists is neither widespread nor directed toward all types of specialists. For example, few administrators would hesitate to employ a school physician and physical education specialist if money were available. But they do often fail to integrate this specialized service with other phases of the personnel program and often with instruction. Health guidance is accepted. But not so with psychiatric service, which is not only as specialized but even more urgently needed. In many small communities administrators fear that psychiatrists would not be acceptable to the public because of popular ignorance and, sometimes, fear of persons associated with "insanity." When psychiatric service is combined with medical services, such a public reaction does not appear. The tendency of administrators to turn to teachers for mental hygiene services is a desirable movement insofar as teachers become trained as specialists in the developing of normal personality. However, in many

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instances psychiatric assistance is needed to train and supervise the teachers in the performance of their mental hygiene functions

In our discussion of the many types of counseling specialists, we shall mention the most important ones and confine our extended discussion to one type. In addition to physicians, psychiatrists, and physical education specialists, there are several others. Psychometrists or teachers with psychometric training provide specialized services in the testing of scholastic and vocational aptitudes, vocational interests, and personality traits. These psychometrists are not to be confused with clinical or school psychologists, who perform a more professional type of diagnostic and counseling service. Remedial teachers diagnose and treat serious cases of disabilities in reading, spelling, and subject matter learning. Speech pathologists and speech corrective teachers assist students with serious deficiencies and disabilities in articulation and in cases of stuttering and stammering. Dentists and dental nurses correct deficiencies in development of teeth. School nurses identify diseases and illnesses needing medical attention and advise simple remedies. Psychiatric social workers treat simpler types of emotional disturbances and assist the psychiatrists in case treatment.

These specialists are available in the larger schools or communities and their services are utilized by the alert counselors and administrators. We mention them briefly because the reader is chiefly interested in discussing the type of specialist of interest to him. This text is not an introduction to the above specialties for which professional training is provided in other departments of a college. Our chief interest is, therefore, in the advanced type of counselor.

The Clinical or School Psychologist.—This specialty is known by various names—clinical psychologist, school psychologist, professionally trained counselor, clinical counselor, and other terms. The term clinical is used to differ-

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entiate this type of psychologist from the college teacher of psychology. The clinical or school psychologist is really a practitioner of psychology but quite different from the faker type of applied psychologist. The psychological specialty, developed during the past three decades, provides a type of assistance which deals with complicated and complex problems. These problems are similar to those dealt with by the general counselor—vocational guidance, mental hygiene, and the like. The differences, then, between clinical psychologists and counselors are not found in the type of student problem, as is the case with physicians and remedial teachers, for example. Rather are these differences to be found in the advanced and technical nature of the diagnostic and treatment techniques used by each. Many counselors could and doubtless will become clinical psychologists upon the completion of advanced graduate work.

The work of these clinical psychologists has been described in detail elsewhere,¹ and we shall outline their functions and procedures briefly.

The techniques and procedures used by the psychological clinicians may be classified in six steps which take place before, during, and after personal interviews with students. These steps are: (1) analysis, (2) synthesis, (3) diagnosis, (4) prognosis, (5) counseling, and (6) follow-up.

Analysis refers to the collection of case information from a variety of sources. Some of the techniques used and sources of information were described in Chap. VII. All these techniques are used to collect both objective and subjective data which will provide a substantial basis for understanding the student's problems and his potentialities for readjustment. Without such information, counseling is mere

¹ WILLIAMSON, E. G., and J. G. DARLEY, *Student Personnel Work*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

WILLIAMSON, E. G., *How to Counsel Students*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

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verbalization. With it, counseling may be an effective influence in stimulating optimum development of potentialities. Just as the teacher needs to understand his students if his instruction is to achieve optimum effectiveness, in like manner the clinical psychologist needs to learn the characteristics of his students before he attempts to assist them

The techniques and sources of information used by the clinician include:

1. Cumulative record histories
2. Personal interviews with students
3. Autobiographies
4. Teachers' anecdotal records.
5. Reports from counselors, administrators, supervisors of activities, and others
6. Interviews and reports from parents
7. Reports of social workers and visiting teachers
8. Reports from psychometrists and special tests given by the clinical psychologist himself
9. Teachers' marks.
10. Reports of the student's work, school, and social experiences
11. Reports from community, social, welfare, and guidance workers

These case data are *synthesized* or condensed in such a manner as to "high-light" the significant facts which bear directly upon the student's problems. This synthesizing is done in the matter of test scores by recording the scores on a test profile or psychograph so that a student's high and low scores are thrown into prominent relief. Other case data are searched for significant facts, which are then condensed or summarized in short paragraphs containing the essential features of the student's problems and potentialities. Both favorable and unfavorable data are synthesized.

The next step is *diagnosing*. This is a subjective process of inferring from the synthesis the specific nature of the student's problems and the basic causes. The clinician must possess a wide range of professional information and experience in order that he may be able to spot or infer the signifi-

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cance of case data. He is looking for a consistent pattern in the data, which pattern epitomizes the essential features of the student's problems. In diagnosing, the clinician identifies the student's potentialities, his present problems, and discovers the causes.

In the *prognosis* step the clinician projects the present situation into the future to arrive at a judgment of the probable adjustments and successes of the student. To do this the clinician must know the significance of his information and understand the demands to be made upon the student by his future environment. For example, the clinician must know what is the probable scholastic record in college of a student with an I Q of 100. Prognoses require that the clinician be well informed of the qualifications—social, intellectual, emotional, etc.—which the student should possess in preparing for future adjustments.

Having informed himself about the student and arrived at a tentative diagnosis and prognosis, the clinician is next ready to interview the student in an effort to review with him the possible and desirable next steps. This is the *counseling* phase, sometimes called advising. In this interview new information may be uncovered which makes necessary a complete revision of the diagnosis and prognosis.

In the counseling interviews (the number is determined by the way in which the student readjusts his problems), the clinician cooperates with the student in performing four services: (1) helping the student to understand himself, (2) suggesting steps to be taken by the student to help himself, (3) giving direct assistance, such as orally presenting occupational information and helping the student to understand clearly his own assets and liabilities, and (4) referring the student to other personnel workers in the school and community for special information or assistance. The clinician, like other types of personnel workers, varies his procedures and techniques in terms of the student's personality, prob-

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lems, and needs. He individualizes and personalizes his techniques as much as does the teacher-counselor.

Following the counseling interviews, the clinician *follows up* the student as much and as long as rapport is maintained and additional assistance is needed. He seeks to help the student stand on his own feet as quickly as he acquires the skill to do so. If new problems develop, as they often do, he begins his work again with the advantage of an understanding of the student's previous experiences and problems. If the student establishes rapport with some other personnel worker, the clinician transfers a report of his information when that is in the best interests of the student.

CASE COORDINATION

Frequent mention has been made in several chapters that the school counselor has a major responsibility for seeing that each of his counselees receives all of the necessary types of personnel assistance. We have described this function as the coordinating of all school and community resources in an effort to provide a well-balanced and complete program of counseling for each individual student. This counseling function is as important as are any of the others described in the preceding sections.

We shall use the term *case coordination* to designate this function, which may be discharged in one or both of two ways. First, the counselor may do his own case work. That is, he may, by interview, telephone, or letter, collect all the diagnostic information from the many types of personnel workers in the school system and the many individuals, including parents, in the community who have some important knowledge to contribute to the counselor's understanding of the student. This collection of information from many sources has been described in Chap. VII. At the same time that he collects case data from many individuals, the counselor should seek consultations to learn of the diagnoses

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or interpretations made by other personnel workers. These diagnostic consultations are as important as the collecting of information descriptive of the student

In helping the student discover a solution to his problems and develop a normal personality, the counselor also calls upon many of these same individuals and agencies for assistance. This counseling phase of case coordination was discussed in preceding sections and need not be elaborated here.

A second method of case coordination is sometimes called the staff clinic, the case conference method, or the group diagnostic consultation. The term clinic is properly used when such conferences are used primarily for the purpose of training graduate students and counselors. In the school system itself such meetings should be designated by the term *case conferences*. These conferences are periodic meetings, usually lasting not less than two hours and attended by the school administrator, the counselor, the teacher, and the various personnel specialists, such as the physician or health officer. Usually not more than two or three cases can be discussed thoroughly in any one conference. In some schools these conferences are held once a week; in others, once a month. In some schools only the most serious and perplexing cases are brought to these meetings. In other schools normal cases are discussed with the idea of focusing the attention of all personnel workers upon more than problem cases.

These meetings are held to pool information, known only to the various personnel workers, concerning a particular student. By presentation of these fragmentary data in a conversational manner rather than in a formal, written report, a more complete understanding of the whole student may be achieved by all personnel workers. After presentation of these fragmentary reports, the group discusses informally the meaning of these data, and each worker gives his own interpretation. Modifications of narrow diagnoses

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are made, and partial information is fitted into the total pattern. This conference method permits all workers to give a more detailed and extended presentation of their knowledge of the student than is possible in a written report or even in a telephone conversation with the counselor. Following this pooling of all case data from the various sources, the group proceeds in an informal, conversational manner to discuss the implications of the data, the possible steps to be suggested to the student, and the specific additional aids each type of personnel worker may provide. Definite tasks are assigned when necessary. For example, the group might agree that the student needed a further check on his physical condition, in which case the physician would be asked to make such a further examination. In like manner, the teacher might be assigned the task of encouraging the student to carry on a special project outside of the classroom to test further his interest in a vocation.

All personnel workers who have had contacts with the student under discussion should, of course, attend these meetings. In addition, teachers and other personnel workers should be encouraged to attend, to participate in the discussions, and to learn each other's personnel functions and how they may be best performed. These conferences prove to be excellent means for the demonstration and illustration of counseling techniques.

Detailed notes and sometimes complete transcriptions should be kept for each of these conferences and filed in the student's folder. The counselor should take the responsibility for conducting the meetings and making these notes unless the head counselor in a particular school is assigned this function. To the student's counselor, however, falls the responsibility for following up to see that all the suggestions are actually carried out. He is the one who actually coordinates all personnel workers dealing directly with a particular student.

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Involved in this case coordination are also certain administrative functions of the school principal or superintendent acting as the chief personnel officer. In seeking to develop a smoothly functioning personnel program, the school administrator must assign specific functions and duties to each personnel officer, including the teachers. The assigning of these functions is an administrative responsibility as well as is the supervision of the details of carrying out such assignments. The administrator will also find that the case conference method has many possibilities for smoothing out problems of jurisdiction and the failure of some personnel workers to understand and to cooperate with others. By actually working together in a conference, personnel workers arrive at a better understanding of each other's special functions and the necessity and desirability of seeking case data outside of their own interviews as well as calling upon other workers for consultation and assistance. In addition, the administrator will discover that teachers will more quickly arrive at an understanding of what personnel work is when they see it in action around a conference table. For these reasons the administrator should use the case conference method for the coordination of personnel workers as well as for the purpose of improving the quality of assistance to students.

SUMMARY

In this chapter we have discussed the functions of those personnel workers who deal directly with individual students through the medium of personal interviews. Included were registration advisers, teacher-counselors, school counselors, and counseling specialists. In the latter group special attention was given to clinical psychologists. Some of the types of student problems dealt with by those workers were listed.

In this and previous chapters we have now discussed the major functions and described the duties of various types of

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personnel workers. Throughout this discussion we have repeatedly emphasized the need for coordination of these many workers. Therefore, we have included a somewhat lengthy discussion of case coordination, by means of which the efforts of many workers are integrated into a balanced and effective program of assistance to individual students

Review and Discussion Questions

- 1 Contrast the techniques used in group guidance and homeroom classes with those involved in counseling
- 2 Why should more than the personal interview be used in the collecting of case data prior to counseling?
3. Name the major functions of teacher-counselors, general counselors, and counseling specialists
- 4 List a number of advantages and disadvantages in the practice of counseling by classroom teachers
- 5 Outline a professional training program for each type of counselor
- 6 With what types of students' problems do most counselors concern themselves today? What historical facts and trends caused this concentration on these problems?
- 7 How may registration advising be performed as a counseling function?
- 8 Discuss the question: "Are remediation teachers personnel workers?"
- 9 Why is coordination of the work of all types of counselors necessary and how may it be achieved?
- 10 How many types of counseling functions are needed in a personnel program?
11. How many types of counselors are needed in a personnel program?
- 12 In what respects do the functions of a general counselor differ from those of a clinical psychologist?
- 13 Why is the counselor called a generalist?
- 14 What is the difference between a synthesis and a diagnosis?
- 15 How may the work of the placement counselor be coordinated with that of other personnel workers?

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CHAPTER IX

Counselors at Work

IN THE preceding chapters we have discussed the philosophy of personnel work, the functions of personnel workers, and the techniques used by these workers. In Chap. VIII the work of counselors with individual students was outlined in some detail. Perhaps the manner in which counselors assist individual students will be clarified still more if we illustrate these techniques with actual case histories of students. Both the theory and practice of personnel work would be made clearer if we understood how the counselor proceeds in his work of assisting students.

Before presenting such illustrative case histories, some explanatory points are in order. It should be remembered that no real student ever presents a problem or a series of problems in exactly the manner outlined in a textbook. The principles of personnel work are abstracted from thousands of different cases, no two of which present the same detail and no one of which is an exact epitome of those principles.

Moreover, no student's real case history is organized in the logical order characteristic of its published form. When a counselor writes or orally presents a case history, he is reporting only those facts which have proved to be significant and relevant. The thousand and one bits of information collected are first organized into a pattern before being reported. If this were not done, then the reader would be confused with what appears to be a meaningless mass of detail.

In the pages which follow, we describe a few of the general types of counseling methods used with a few of the many

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types of students' problems. Many more techniques and problems could be presented if space were available. The counseling methods described are not necessarily the proper ones to be used with all students. Modifications and adaptations must be made by the counselor in terms of the peculiarities of the student, the school, and the counselor himself. The effective counselor does not have *a* method to be used, but many methods which he adapts in different ways to each student's problems. In the following cases we illustrate a few of these many possible adaptations.

Except in a few instances the laborious procedures used by the counselor to collect his case data are not mentioned in these illustrative cases. We have, however, summarized the significant information available after the counselor has used his tools of analysis. In like manner the interviewing and other counseling methods used by the counselor have been mentioned briefly. Our purpose is to illustrate some of the procedures and not to list in detail all of the steps involved in assisting students. For these reasons some of the cases may appear to be oversimplified. As any counselor will discover, however, when he begins his counseling without any information about a student, the process is far from being a simple one. His final case summary may be simple, but the intervening steps will prove to be complicated and time-consuming.

JOSEPH MAUSER—LOW ABILITY AND HIGH AMBITIONS

Case Data.—Joseph, a junior, was referred to the school counselor by his English instructor. In a theme on the topic "What I Plan to Do When I Leave High School," Joseph stated that for years he had wanted to prepare for the practice of medicine. His parents had urged him to make this choice when an uncle, a doctor, promised to pay part of his college expenses provided he enrolled in the medical

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course. A grade of F in last semester's chemistry course resulted in criticisms from the parents and continued warnings that the uncle would be angry with Joseph because of his grade. Joseph wrote in his theme that he was now worried about his situation. He had studied chemistry very diligently throughout the semester. He now wondered if he possessed sufficient ability to do anything well. He closed his theme with the query, "How can I find out what to do?" The English teacher suggested that he talk with the counselor and sent the theme to the counselor with an explanatory note of introduction.

During the first interview with the counselor, Joseph repeated the above information and added further detail. The father, an automobile salesman, had begun working after leaving the eighth grade and for years had insisted that Joseph prepare for the practice of medicine, an ambition which the father had been forced to abandon because of inadequate family finances. Joseph had enthusiastically accepted the advice of his father and his uncle despite certain questions concerning ability and finances raised by his teachers and principal at the time he enrolled in high school as a freshman. However, no more had been said about his vocational choice until his present English teacher suggested that he discuss the problem with the school counselor.

The counselor listened sympathetically to this recital of Joseph's problem and closed the first interview by saying that he would try to help find a solution but first he must learn more about Joseph's school record. Only by reviewing all of the available information could he learn what to advise. Joseph was asked to invite his parents to come to the school the next day for an interview.

The counselor interviewed all Joseph's teachers of the current and preceding year, secured his cumulative school record, and learned the following significant facts. All teachers, without exception, reported that Joseph was

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conscientious in attempting to learn assigned lessons, but his written examinations and classroom recitations revealed the meager amount of knowledge he had acquired. These teachers had not known of his vocational ambition and, when informed by the counselor, stated definitely that they questioned his ability to do college work of any kind, certainly not the medical course. Several teachers, including the chemistry instructor, reported that the mother had interviewed them and said that she and the father were continually supervising Joseph's activities in the home to see that he devoted all his time to studying. At the parents' request he had discontinued several after-school jobs including a daily paper route. The cumulative school record revealed a consistent achievement level of C's and D's with a few F's changed to D's by repeating courses. Standardized achievement tests administered in the sixth grade had confirmed the teachers' marks, all percentile ranks being below 25. Another battery of tests given in the eighth grade had yielded similar results. Tests of intelligence also given in the sixth and eighth grades had yielded I. Q.'s of 95 and 99. There was no record of participation in activities, but the counselor remembered that Joseph had been on the football squad in his first year of high school.

The counselor discovered no record of disciplinary actions, but one teacher reported that during one class quiz she thought Joseph had attempted to copy from a classmate. No report of the incident had been made to the principal. The visiting teacher had never been requested to interview the parents concerning Joseph, indicating that the school had no occasion to review or take action concerning citizenship behavior.

Diagnosis and Prognosis.—Subject to confirmation by additional testing, the counselor concluded that unwise family pressures had caused Joseph to choose a vocation beyond his ability to achieve. An entirely different type of

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occupational goal and training were indicated by the case data. Both Joseph and his parents needed to be counseled to consider an alternative plan which would hold more promise of success. This the counselor recognized as a difficult task because nothing had been done by the school at an earlier date, even though a sufficient basis for counseling had been available.

Counseling.—The mother was interviewed with the anticipated results. The suggestion that Joseph might better search for another occupational goal was a distinct shock and brought forth criticisms of teachers because of their grades and of the school because of failure to counsel at an earlier date rather than permit Joseph to fail in a subject before raising a question about his ambition. After an embarrassing discussion the counselor succeeded in persuading the mother to consent to a search for an alternative life goal. Not the least difficult was the counselor's task of persuading the mother that she was wrong in hastily concluding that the counselor's report meant that Joseph "was just dumb and would not be successful in anything." All that the counselor had learned in college of the intellectual level of the average adult and of different types of abilities had to be hastily recalled and reviewed before the mother was convinced.

In a second interview with Joseph, the counselor won his cooperation in searching for an alternative choice. Joseph reported that after thinking about his problem he was now relieved that he no longer had to face a task of which he had been secretly afraid.

A day of testing revealed the following new facts. On two tests of intelligence Joseph received I. Q.'s of 99 and 100. More achievement tests revealed again that the teachers had not underestimated his knowledge of the subjects taught in the classroom. Three tests of personality revealed no emotional disturbances except a slight tendency to be dis-

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satisfied with his family relationships. A test of clerical aptitude yielded so low a score that no occupation of this type seemed to offer promise of success. Three tests of mechanical ability, however, revealed undiagnosed aptitude of a very high quality. Further questioning of Joseph indicated that he had tinkered in his own shop for years with tools. But he had never thought this experience and interest had any significance for his possible vocational future.

The counselor next reviewed all the case data before a case conference to make certain that he had overlooked no significant facts and that his diagnosis was tenable. Then the counselor invited Joseph and both parents to a conference in which he reviewed the case data, stressing the positive facts and touching lightly on those unfavorable to the original vocational plans. The counselor then suggested a number of occupations in which Joseph's abilities would be decidedly useful.

After much discussion the father stated that he was willing to leave the decision to Joseph, who then stated that he wanted to learn more about vocations before he chose. The conference adjourned and then the counselor held the first of several interviews devoted to learning occupational information. At the end of three weeks Joseph decided to prepare for work as a garage mechanic, and the counselor then arranged for a transfer to the vocational school.

Follow-up.—One year after the first interview, the counselor brought his case data up to date and presented them before a case conference. Joseph had made a very satisfactory record in his new courses and reported that he was pleased with his training. Both the mother and father were satisfied and no longer felt "let down" because Joseph had failed to carry out the father's own ambition. Even the uncle had become reconciled to the advisability of the change of vocational plans. The counselor reported to the members of the case conference that the case could not yet be

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closed because the problem of placement would arise when Joseph completed his training course. The school could not assume that Joseph would, hereafter, solve all his new problems because of his wise vocational choice. Plans were then made in the conference to give special attention to the anticipated placement problem.

PETER WHITTAKER—MISDIRECTED ABILITIES

Case Data.—Early in September the superintendent called the counselor to his office and asked what he should do about Peter. Already teachers were complaining that they could do little to keep order in their classes because of Peter's behavior. He not only neglected his own work but distracted others by whispering and otherwise making a general nuisance of himself. This type of behavior had occurred during previous years. The preceding spring Peter had been brought before the student council and at that time had promised to reform. Now that he had regressed to his old habits, should the superintendent expel him even though he was a senior? The counselor, though discouraged with the meager results of his previous attempts at counseling, thought he should make another effort before such a drastic action was taken. The superintendent agreed to postpone action temporarily and at the counselor's suggestion called a special meeting of all teachers to discuss the situation. In preparation for this case conference, the counselor reviewed his own interview notes which contained the following information.

Peter's father was employed by the local railroad office as a maintenance worker. Both parents had meager educational background, and none of their six children had satisfactory scholastic or social records in the school. Peter, the oldest child, had been the cause of many complaints throughout his attendance at school. No reports of dishonesty had been made, but he had been inattentive and

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mischievous in classes. The visiting teacher had interviewed the mother on numerous occasions but had secured little cooperation. Apparently the mother was a good homemaker but had little interest in Peter's schoolwork. She had never participated in activities of the Parent-Teachers Association. The father's income was small, and the mother managed the home only with great difficulty. The father also exhibited no interest in Peter's schoolwork except to scold him when the school reported misbehavior.

All members of the school's staff were convinced that Peter possessed high intelligence, and this had been confirmed repeatedly by the results of intelligence tests given in the elementary school. The counselor had obtained I Q's of 130, 132, and 135 on tests given at one-year intervals. The preceding year a battery of achievement tests revealed that Peter, despite failure to study his lesson assignments, possessed a fund of information equal to that of the highest one-tenth of his classmates. His percentile ranks were as follows: English grammar 95, literature 92; history 97; algebra 90, chemistry 99, German 100; zoology 93. On a test of attitudes he indicated definitely his dissatisfaction with everything and everyone in the school. His social relationships with classmates were unsatisfactory, and he was unpopular except with other boys who were equally mischievous. When asked about his occupational ambitions, he had for several years replied in an offhand manner that some day he expected to become a chemist. A vocational interest test given by the counselor during the preceding year had confirmed this choice and also indicated that other types of scientific work were in line with Peter's measured interests.

Despite these favorable qualifications in ability, interests, and tested knowledge, Peter had made little effort to do the required classroom work and had been content to receive mediocre grades. The counselor had made many efforts to

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arouse his interest in schoolwork but with no results. Peter seemed to think that he would reform scholastically at some unspecified date in the future. He had told the counselor repeatedly that the classroom work bored him and that he did not need to study in order to get a passing grade in examinations. The latter point was verified by the case data.

The counselor's interview notes reminded him in detail that he had repeatedly urged the superintendent to release Peter from part of the routine classroom work. Perhaps special tutorial work and projects would stimulate him intellectually and result in greater effort to learn, thus drawing his attention away from his adolescent misbehavior. The superintendent had been persuaded a year ago to approve such action, but the teachers had complained that Peter deserved no such special privileges. Let him first demonstrate his willingness and ability to learn as other students were required to learn. Only under such conditions should a student be given permission to learn at his own pace and in his own manner. In vain the counselor had pointed to the results of standardized achievement tests; these data were unacceptable to the teachers. Equally in vain had the counselor suggested that it had already been demonstrated that more than the usual classroom routine methods were required before the school could stimulate Peter to use his superior ability. The teachers had buttressed their argument by pointing to other students with equal ability who were getting high grades under the present classroom conditions.

Diagnosis and Prognosis.—After reviewing the above case data, the counselor again reached the same conclusion he had made in previous years. Peter was a boy of high aptitude who was not stimulated sufficiently by the school to use that ability. The lack of cultural and intellectual influences in the home had produced no fixed habits of study,

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no habit of working beyond the required minimum. He had never experienced intellectual stimulation and therefore needed more than the routine classroom supervision. Unless out-of-the-ordinary teaching methods were used, it was likely that he would never make full use of his abilities. His mischievous behavior was but a symptom of his boredom with tasks below his intellectual capacity.

Counseling.—Armed with these facts and convictions the counselor went into the teachers' meeting determined to plead again for special dispensations from the regular routine of the classroom. At this conference, as a result of the counselor's eloquent pleading, the teachers reluctantly agreed to cooperate for a limited time. Such an action was to be preferred to expulsion, although most of them remained convinced that this was establishing an unwise precedent by rewarding laziness through special privileges.

The counselor next interviewed Peter and described the situation in detail, making clear that failure to cooperate would be harmful to the counselor's status with the teachers. Peter responded enthusiastically but with some doubts of his ability to make good to the extent anticipated by the counselor. Attendance in classes was to be optional, but once each week Peter agreed to have a long conference with each of his teachers and also to take the regular class examinations. In addition, if he preferred, he could work on any project and write a report for the teacher. For example, if he wanted to conduct a special experiment in chemistry, the teacher agreed to answer any questions Peter voluntarily asked. Several times each week Peter was to confer with the counselor as to the progress of his work.

During the first few weeks Peter attended some of his classes and at times regressed to his earlier habits. He also was slow to begin any special projects. Some of the teachers were irritated at this failure to turn over a new leaf at once. But the superintendent insisted on continuing the

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experiment for one semester By the time Christmas vacation had arrived Peter was absorbed in his studies and projects and had sought assistance from all his teachers. Occasionally he had lapsed into his old habits, but the counselor no longer heard complaints from his teachers, and one or two of them had become enthusiastic about his special projects.

At the close of the semester Peter passed his examinations in a creditable manner but still at a level below his capacity. All his teachers, however, agreed to permit him to continue under the same regime. If his progress continued he would graduate with his class. His occupational goal had been definitely chosen as chemistry, and he now was working on experiments beyond those required in the classroom He had become less irritating to his classmates but was still not popular. The counselor had begun a search for financial assistance for his college expenses.

Follow-up.—One year later the counselor asked permission to report at a teachers' meeting the progress Peter had made in his college work In his first semester he had received two A grades, one B, and two C's The report from the college counselor indicated that Peter was at times irritated by the hampering routine of college classes and consequently made low marks in some examinations. But most of the time he seemed to be able to rise above the routine requirements and to learn at his own pace. His personality development had paralleled his intellectual growth, and he now was well liked by his roommates. With the aid of a tuition scholarship and a waiter's job in the dormitory, he managed to meet his financial obligations Peter's parents now took pride in the fact that their son was attending college.

After listening to this recital by the counselor, the high-school teachers expressed interest in trying a similar experiment with other students of high ability and low achievement

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SUSAN SMITH—RESTRICTED DEVELOPMENT

Case Data.—Susan transferred to the high school from another city at the beginning of her junior year. It was not until January that she came to the counselor's office, and then only as the result of several invitations. None of her teachers had made any reports about her and, in response to the counselor's requests, simply stated that she was quiet and did not participate much in class discussions. Her grades were very high and the teachers did not think she needed to be counseled. None of the class advisers could remember whether she had attended activity meetings. Her transfer record from the previous school contained no comments, merely a record of A and B grades.

Susan came into the counselor's office shyly and answered questions in a low soft voice. The counselor was unable to get her to speak freely. She was dressed less modishly than were her classmates, the counselor thought of the adjective "frowzy." She had participated in no activities, and the only social experiences she reported were occasional movies attended with her parents. Her parents did not entertain much in the home and had few friends. She said she wished she could make friends but had not been successful in her few attempts. Apart from her manner of dress she was not unattractive. A younger sister was quite popular and socially active. Susan admired her sister and wished she could be like her. Without being depressed and morbid, Susan had become unhappy and dissatisfied with her lack of social adjustment.

The counselor's interview with Susan's mother confirmed the above information. Both parents had noted the differences between the sisters and wished that Susan could develop socially to the same extent that she had grown intellectually. The mother indicated a willingness to cooperate with the counselor in helping Susan.

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Diagnosis and Prognosis.—For a number of obscure reasons Susan had failed to develop socially. As far as the counselor could judge there were no pathological conditions back of her emotional retardation, merely failure to use her social aptitudes because of lack of encouragement. Because of her intellectual superiority teachers had tended to ignore her social backwardness and to conclude that she had no need of counseling assistance. With proper counseling she should be able to make some progress in social adjustments, perhaps progress equal to her achievement in the classroom.

Counseling.—The counselor began a long-term program of social education. For the most part counseling was indirect but with respect to some matters the counselors discussed them frankly with Susan, whose efforts to cooperate were wholehearted. Activity advisers agreed to invite her to participate. She was appointed to membership on some of the class committees. With the mother's assistance and indirect advice she bought more modish clothes and visited beauty parlors. At the counselor's suggestion some of the senior girls became friendly with her and invited her to their parties. After a long apprenticeship of this type, one of the senior girls arranged a "blind-date" invitation.

At the end of a year of such counseling, Susan had been accepted by her classmates in a social as well as intellectual manner. Without neglecting her schoolwork, she was now participating in several citizenship and social activities.

Follow-up.—During her senior year Susan continued to make progress in social development. Teachers reported the change in her enthusiasm and interest as well as the metamorphosis in her appearance. She was elected to the student council and to the staff of the school paper. While she continued to reveal some nervousness in social situations, nevertheless she had made much progress in development of social poise and self-confidence. The counselor's refusal to accept a high scholastic record as signifying the

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absence of counseling problems had been vindicated by the subsequent well-roundedness of Susan's development. Socially and emotionally she was now approaching the level of her intellectual stature

WILLIAM SWENSON—DISCIPLINARY PROBLEM CASE

Case Data.—William entered high school from a one-room, country school from which no information was transferred except subject matter grades. His father was a tenant farmer with an eighth-grade education received in a foreign country. His mother was American born and had completed two years of high school. There were nine children in the family, four boys and five girls, two of whom were married. William lived with one of his married sisters. The family was financially and culturally poor.

At the time of enrollment in high school, William was given a battery of tests, including an intelligence test, achievement tests in English and mathematics, a personality test, and test of clerical aptitude. On all these tests William received high scores. On the achievement tests he scored much higher than his transfer grades would indicate.

William rapidly became popular with other students. He was pleasant and always willing to enter into projects although he was not discerning in the kind of activity in which he engaged. From the beginning he was fanatically devoted to athletics. The first blot on his school record occurred when he was barred from participation in athletics because of low grades. Apparently he did not study and was a nuisance in classrooms, restless and annoying to teachers.

In his freshman year he was detected cheating in an examination. A logical excuse and an injured reaction excused him, but he was caught two days later by another teacher under almost identical circumstances. He was then

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summoned to the principal's office for discipline. The decision barred him from athletics for the remainder of the year and forced him to cancel the two courses in which he had cheated. Despite a lighter academic load William failed his remaining two courses. His attitude toward teachers became sullen, although he still maintained his cordial relationships with the students.

At this point the principal sought the counselor's assistance. After familiarizing himself with the above information, the counselor sought for an explanation for the discrepancy between ability and achievement. After several interviews the counselor discovered that William liked sciences but could not enroll in chemistry and physics until his junior and senior years. The counselor also learned of a long-standing antagonism toward the father and toward farm life. William worked at home week ends and in the summer, being paid nothing except room, board, and a minimum of clothes.

Before the counselor had made much progress, a further complication made its appearance. Students had been reporting for some time that money was disappearing from lockers in the gymnasium dressing rooms. Now the janitor apprehended William in the act of stealing money from a locker.

The reaction of the school administration was sudden and stern. William was threatened with expulsion and with criminal charges. The superintendent decreed that William could not graduate with his class. Even when agreement was reached to allow the counselor full responsibility for the case, it was with the understanding that graduation was out of the question.

Diagnosis and Prognosis.—After two difficult interviews the reason for stealing was discovered. Drought had brought financial pressures on William's father to such an extent that no support whatsoever was possible for the boy.

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The sister could give him food and a place to sleep but no money for clothes or incidental expenses. No part-time work was available and rather than give up everything he considered worth while aside from athletics, he had taken money from the lockers. William offered this as a reason, not as a defense. He seemed sincerely sorry for what he had done.

William did not wish to remain in school or in the community. His companions shunned him, and he could not participate in athletics. He had no ambitions or goals which were clearly defined. Haphazardly he thought he would find something to do, probably teaching and coaching after he had completed college. He did not see clearly that failure to graduate from high school would block such an ambition.

Counseling.—The counselor prevailed upon William to remain in town for a few days while a sensible program could be formulated. A case conference was then called including the principal, homeroom teacher, classroom teachers, and the counselor.

The case history was presented with the following conclusions on the part of the counselor (1) that William could not face the situation in the high school, (2) that the boy had been subjected to unusual pressures; (3) that William should finish high school in another community; and (4) that the counselor should attempt to discover a vocational goal which might challenge William to turn over a new leaf. Opinions in the conference were divided. The principal would not attempt to alter the superintendent's ruling in regard to graduation but thought that William should be reinstated as a student and allowed to compete on athletic teams for the remainder of the year provided that he make a public apology to the student body.

The homeroom teacher felt that the boy had made a mistake but realized it and that now the slate should be

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wiped clean. She knew that he would have difficulty in making new adjustments to his classmates but thought that having to do this would be good discipline.

The classroom teachers felt that William had not made use of the opportunities afforded him by the school but that he should be allowed another chance on probation provided he did academic work more in line with his aptitudes. One teacher thought that the Civilian Conservation Corps would be a good place for him. The others felt that the boy's place was at home if he did not wish to return to school that year. All felt that graduation was impossible and not desirable.

The question was raised by the counselor as to possibilities for a change of schools. The principal agreed that this was a good idea if funds were available. He agreed to cooperate by sending a satisfactory transfer record if there should be an opportunity for such a change. The conference decided that the case should be left in the hands of the counselor within the limitations imposed by the administration.

In a search for a challenging vocational goal, the counselor asked William to take a vocational interest test. The results were A ratings in chemistry and engineering. The counselor called in William for an interview. Possible actions were discussed. (1) The advisability of abandoning plans for further education for the present and trying to find a job was considered. Objections to this were that work would be difficult to find locally and that William had no funds with which to search farther afield. (2) William vetoed promptly the principal's suggestion of a public apology with the approval of the counselor. (3) Enrolling in a Civilian Conservation Corps camp was discussed with the possibility that the educational program would permit further high-school credits toward graduation. (4) There was also the alternative of returning to the farm and helping

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his father. This brought information from William concerning the lack of understanding and sympathy between his father and himself. The father was bitter because the boy had attended high school, and the boy was bitter because of the hard discipline and long hours of work on the farm. Furthermore, his father was utterly unsympathetic about the present situation. The counselor informed William that, had he explained his financial difficulties, federal or state aid might have been made available to him.

After much discussion a plan was evolved. William would remain with his sister until the counselor had obtained information about enrollment in a Civilian Conservation Corps camp. If high-school credits could be arranged, the counselor would attempt to secure the granting of a diploma from the school. This plan was satisfactory to William, and the counselor took the necessary steps.

Follow-up.—One year later the counselor reported the following information to the principal. William was admitted to a Civilian Conservation Corps camp in the spring, four months after leaving high school. He was now eligible to graduate from high school on the basis of credits earned while in the camp. The camp counselor, working with the school counselor, advised about enrollment in college. William planned to enroll in college the next fall, working on the campus during the coming summer to make tuition money. He was to be granted Federal Aid work during the school year. His goals were not definite, but he planned to try a science course with the hope of becoming a chemist. The camp counselor reported that William's work in the camp showed him to be serious in his studies and exemplary in his conduct. In the counselor's judgment the probabilities were favorable that he would become a successful student and a desirable citizen because of these efforts to counsel rather than to punish him for youthful misconduct.

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MARY JONES—HIGH ACHIEVEMENT AND PHYSICAL DISABILITIES

Case Data.—Mary was fourteen years of age when her case was first called to the attention of the counselor. Data in the case history folder indicated that Mary possessed superior scholastic aptitude and had made effective use of it. Her grades were at the top of her classes in all subjects. The medical history indicated infantile paralysis contracted when Mary was eight years of age. Full use of arms, hands, and torso was maintained, but Mary's legs remained in braces. Mary was not sensitive about her physical condition and took part in many school activities.

The father had died when Mary was ten, leaving a small insurance policy to care for the mother, Mary, and two younger brothers. By the time Mary enrolled in high school, the mother was supporting the family as general handy woman in the small town in which they lived. During Mary's freshman year in high school the mother's health began to fail, and the family was forced to rely upon public relief.

Although Mary had satisfactory ability for college training, no resources were available for financial support. The immediate problem was to discover an occupation for which Mary could be trained with a minimum of expense and time. The high school offered only a limited commercial course in addition to the college preparatory subjects and wood-working. Mary was nearing the end of her sophomore year and felt that she could not afford more time for education other than that of a strictly vocational nature.

Diagnosis and Prognosis.—The family doctor did not believe that Mary would regain the normal use of her legs even if she should be able to abandon her braces. This limited her occupational possibilities to jobs requiring no walking about. The opportunity for routine clerical

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workers appeared to be limited in the community, and there were no funds available to support Mary if she sought employment in another town. In addition to this limitation it was doubtful that the commercial department of the school could provide sufficient training for stenographic work. Community and school resources were inadequate for diagnosis and counseling of Mary's problems.

Counseling.—The counselor scheduled Mary's case for a staff conference attended by the counselor, the superintendent, the principal, and three of Mary's classroom teachers. The family doctor was invited but was unable to attend. The counselor presented the case data, emphasizing the financial status of the family, Mary's physical condition and her vocational limitations, and the lack of school or community resources which might be of assistance in her case. Discussion revealed that Mary's problem needed the attention of personnel workers trained to advise this type of case. The counselor agreed to write to the state department of education concerning the possibility of assistance from the staff of vocational rehabilitation counselors. It was agreed that Mary must prepare for some specific job since further academic training was becoming increasingly impractical in the light of family finances.

The counselor wrote the state rehabilitation department and received a reply that a worker from the department would be at the high school within ten days. Arrangements having been completed for this service, the counselor arranged another staff conference at the time the state worker could be present.

The state counselor spent a day with Mary, interviewing, testing, and summarizing results. The next day the case conference met with the state counselor and the family doctor present. The doctor contributed the information that Mary's sight and hearing were normal and that her general health was good. The rehabilitation counselor

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concurred in the advisability of stenographic training but stated that his department could not now provide training funds because Mary was too young to be entitled to such assistance.

Discussion of the case by the conference resulted in the following proposals: (1) that Mary remain in high school until the close of her junior year, (2) that Mary be allowed to enroll in typing and shorthand courses even though this involved canceling two of her college preparatory subjects, (3) that Mary be assigned as an N Y A student to the school library doing desk work, (4) that the state rehabilitation department assume responsibility for Mary's vocational training at the close of the junior year

The counselor conferred with Mary and her mother two days later. The mother felt that Mary might find employment without vocational training but was finally convinced that employment opportunities for fourteen-year-old girls were few in number. It was also pointed out that too early a choice might work an injustice to Mary. The family could get along financially for at least another year under present circumstances, although this was not a pleasant prospect. The counselor also insisted that Mary should not completely put aside the plan of college training despite present conditions. These suggestions were agreed to by Mary and her mother.

Follow-up.—One year later the counselor reviewed the case at another case conference. Mary had received high grades in her typing courses and was rapidly becoming proficient with shorthand. She had insisted on carrying an extra subject and so was close to normal progress in the college preparatory course as well. A friend, manager of the local telephone company, had permitted Mary to learn to operate a switchboard two evenings each week and had promised her employment as a relief operator. This would

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ease the pressures during the time that she would not receive N.Y.A. assistance. The next fall Mary would be aided by the state rehabilitation department in training at a business college in a near-by city.

One year after the time of the first follow-up, the counselor discovered that Mary was working as a switchboard operator and information clerk in a business office in the city where she had obtained her business training with funds from the state rehabilitation department. Her mother's health had improved, and there was now some possibility that she would find sufficient employment to increase her income enough to support the family. Mary was still considering ways and means of continuing her education. No definite plans for college training had been made, but the counselor had interested a college in Mary's case and there was some hope that she would receive a scholarship. The counselor noted that Mary should be given further counsel regarding an occupational choice and the type of courses to select if she did go to college. Such a suggestion of the needed counseling was forwarded to the college, together with other information from the counselor's records.

JANE SMITH—A NORMAL COUNSELING CASE

Case Data.—Jane was referred to the school counselor by the registration adviser because she did not know which course of studies to choose at the beginning of senior high school. She had made no vocational choice, and no one had counseled her at any time, as far as she could remember. Since a choice had to be made within two days, the counselor suggested that any decision should be tentative and subject to review during the first semester of the present school year. Jane exhibited little interest in her problem and could not think of any vocation or subject which aroused her interest. The counselor arranged for another appointment

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early the next day and carried Jane's cumulative record folder home that night for review. In the folder he found the following information.

Intelligence tests and school grades were equal to the average of the school population and of Jane's class. She had failed in no subjects and had not received any grades above C. There were no records of participation in activities. Jane had no specific vocational plans. Her father, a hardware merchant and also a painting contractor, left Jane's problems in the hands of Jane's mother, who in turn allowed Jane to plan for herself. No financial pressures existed in this upper-middle-class home to make Jane's vocational choice an urgent or immediate problem. The mother had reported to the principal the preceding year that "Jane is only fifteen, so there is plenty of time. She will probably get married before too many years. Besides we can provide for her—she's an only child."

Diagnosis and Prognosis.—For the counselor, however, Jane did present a problem. It was September and a program must be selected for the school year. It seemed unwise to encourage Jane to choose her subjects passively. At present she appeared to possess no absorbing hobby or expressed interest to guide her choices. The problem was then to discover a goal which would prove to be relatively more interesting than any she had yet found. The present method of passively drifting did not offer much promise of leading to the discovery of such a goal. The counselor had, therefore, to make a more thorough diagnosis of aptitudes and interests before advising Jane. The available case data were inadequate for this purpose.

As a first step the counselor administered several tests of clerical aptitude on which Jane received high ratings. Several questions were raised in connection with this finding. Was Jane neat in writing assignments? Reports from classroom teachers indicated that neatness was characteristic of

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her work. Was Jane accurate in the details of her written assignments? The answer was again yes. Was Jane noticeably slow in preparing work of a clerical nature? No, she worked quite rapidly. How well had Jane achieved in English classes? What of reading abilities? Spelling? The answers to these questions were favorable. One possible vocational goal might now be considered—selection of commercial courses as preparation for stenographic work might arouse Jane's interests.

But what of the college preparatory course itself? Even though Jane did not possess high academic abilities, there might be some colleges in which she would be successful. Jane expressed the usual vague idea that she might go to college after high-school graduation. The counselor was rather certain that a traditional arts college would be a poor choice even if Jane met the prerequisites for admission. Therefore, the question of preparation for college remained open.

An analysis of case data and conferences with classroom teachers and those in charge of extracurricular activities convinced the counselor that Jane had no serious social maladjustment. But the counselor made a mental note to administer an adjustment inventory as a check against the information at hand, since students who avoid the social spotlight, though common, sometimes do so because of concealed and unexpressed emotional disturbances.

Counseling.—The counselor was now ready to review all available data and tentatively to plan with Jane her program of courses. What should be done in the next conference with Jane? The counselor favored a combination of college preparatory and commercial subjects which would provide a vocational tryout and at the same time lead to further general education at the college level. A second alternative was concentration upon the commercial courses. Another topic to be discussed with Jane concerned her par-

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ticipation in social activities. With these alternatives and points outlined, an invitation was sent to Jane asking her to see the counselor during a study period the next day.

When Jane reported at the appointed time, the interview was opened by a request that she state her desires about a class program for the semester. Jane had no definite ideas except that she would like to enroll in the French class to be with two of her friends. Otherwise she was content to register in any other college preparatory subject. In response to a question about commercial courses, she said that she had never considered stenographic training and was surprised to learn that she possessed high aptitudes. She had no objections to enrolling in a typing course as a tryout but wished to talk to her parents about the possible change. She was still considering college work but had no particular institution in mind. The conversation shifted in the direction of social activities. Jane was surprised that anyone was at all concerned with what she did outside of the classrooms. She did not wish to belong to more school organizations. There was no boy in whom she was especially interested. Her leisure time was used for reading various magazines and some books of fiction. Jane also liked to help with certain duties about the home. Aside from the few school activities in which she engaged, she was a member of two church societies and the Girl Scouts. In none of these was she a leader in any sense, nor did she wish to be. No objection was offered to taking an adjustment inventory; and the resulting scores were within the normal range for students of her age.

As a result of this conference, Jane enrolled in typing, college preparatory English, history, and mathematics. A tentative program for three years was planned. Completion of this program would permit Jane to enroll in one of several junior colleges or to enter a business college if she later concluded that vocational placement was desirable at that time.

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Follow-up.—During the summer following her graduation from high school, Jane returned to interview her counselor. She was now attending a private business college and was well satisfied with the training and the type of work. She now felt that further general education was desirable and that her typing and shorthand would help her with academic work. Her problem at that time concerned what junior college to select. The counselor discussed the relative merits of several colleges and loaned Jane a number of catalogues and bulletins to show to her parents.

The counselor noticed no marked change in personality. Jane was still a quiet youngster and revealed only a little more interest and initiative than she had two years before. The counselor did not attempt further counseling on this problem, having concluded that Jane's social passivity was not caused by any serious maladjustment but rather by a slow rate of development. As long as she was satisfactorily adjusted there was no reason for attempting to force more aggressive participation.

One week later Jane returned and with the counselor's assistance selected a junior college and the subjects she desired. Arrangements were made to forward her academic record and case summary to the college. For the present the counselor marked the case closed but subject to further follow-up on the basis of Jane's further scholastic and social development.

CHAPTER X

Administration of the Student Personnel Program

IN CHAP. III we made brief mention of the fact that the school administrators carry responsibility for certain personnel functions. The nature of these duties varies from school to school depending upon the professional training of the administrator, the size of his school, and other local conditions. If he is trained in counseling methods, the superintendent¹ of a small high school may actually assume responsibility for advising students. In a larger school the superintendent, being occupied with other duties, will appoint certain trained teachers to function as counselors and will confine his personnel duties to supervision of these counselors. In very large school systems consisting of many separate high schools, the superintendent delegates responsibility for supervision of counseling to an assistant superintendent or directly to the principals. Such a superintendent is concerned with the personnel program only with respect to general problems of budget, policy, and staff appointments.

Whether personnel functions are performed by the superintendent or delegated to members of his staff, the school administrator is an important factor in a personnel program. As Koos and Kefauver contend:

If at one extreme his school is so large that most administrative responsibilities—even guidance activities among them—must be

¹ In many small schools the superintendent performs many of the duties discharged by principals in a large school system. For this reason we shall use the term superintendent to cover the personnel functions of both school officers.

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delegated to others, he must have an adequate understanding of the significance and scope of guidance and an intelligent appreciation of the means to be used . . . If at the other extreme the high school has a small staff and enrollment, his connection is more direct in that he must be the person or one of the persons directly engaging in the guidance activities.¹

Lee argues for the importance of this point in an even more positive manner

The key to any effective program in occupational adjustment resides in superintendents and principals of schools. They must be convinced of the necessity for adequate consideration of the problem of occupational adjustment in the budget, in the selection of personnel, in curriculum revision, and in administrative organization and practice. This practical issue excels all others in importance for unless progress takes place in this realm, achievement in the remaining issues is stopped automatically. It is at this point, therefore, that all guidance and personnel workers should focus their immediate attention.²

Our discussion of the role of the superintendent, however, will not exhaust the problems of administration of the personnel program. In addition to what the superintendent does as a general administrator, the director of guidance, the principal, the head counselor, and other subadministrators carry on many activities designed to keep the machinery of the personnel program functioning smoothly. The content of this chapter on administration will, therefore, deal with both of these phases (1) general administrative functions and (2) delegated and direct supervision of personnel activities. We repeat that in many schools both functions are carried out by the same person. But, as in the case of all our discussions, we emphasize the nature of the functions and leave to the local school administrator the problem of organizing his own program in terms of local resources and staff.

¹ KOOS, LEONARD V., and GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, pp. 578-579, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

² LEE, EDWIN A., "Critical Issues in Guidance and Personnel," *Occupations*, May, 1936, 5-692.

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GENERAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAM

In discussing the duties of general administrators, we shall include (1) financing the program, (2) selection of personnel workers; (3) program building; (4) in-service training of staff, (5) administrative coordination, (6) utilizing the curriculum; (7) general policy making, and (8) evaluation of the personnel program. As we shall see, some of these administrative functions are shared among several members of the school staff.

Financing the Program.—Because personnel activities have expanded rapidly during the years of an economic depression, few programs have operated above a subsistence level. Per student costs may be low, but the total sum needed bulks large in comparison with that required for some other services. Effective programs have, however, been organized and administered with meager budgets, and poor programs have operated with relatively large budgets. Adequate financial support for the program can be secured only if the school administrator understands the methods, needs, and objectives of his program. He must appreciate the necessity for physical equipment, counseling offices, and record-keeping devices. These and other items are necessary in direct relation to the size of the school and the scope of the program. In small schools new equipment may not be needed, and the few needed supplies can be purchased from the regular supply budget. Larger schools often are forced to furnish new equipment for the student personnel program. Because these schools have greater faculty and community resources, their programs tend to be more complex and therefore require special supplies and equipment with an attendant increase in costs.

Many schools are faced with the need for additional faculty to discharge services needed as the program develops. Small schools are often able to avoid budget increases through

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careful selection of new teachers with training for both instructional and personnel duties. Various teaching combinations permit the employment of experienced teacher-counselors who can devote part time to counseling activities. Large schools frequently avoid greater costs through slight increases in class size, thus releasing the teacher for personnel activities.

Personnel programs often place a new and heavy clerical burden on school facilities. Few secondary schools, large or small, can afford a regular clerical staff for these activities. Makeshifts must often be used, and the choice of these is usually meager. The poorest solution is probably that of adding to the chores of classroom teachers. Proper faculty attitudes toward the program are too important to be jeopardized by making personnel work a chore. Temporary aid may be possible through a federal works project. Employment of part-time student clerks is not desirable but may be the only solution. The administrator must weigh the possibilities in terms of his budget and make the final decision.

In programs which make use of quantities of standardized test material, the administrator can take advantage of discounts on large orders. Savings possible through buying standard instruments for a year or two years in advance are appreciable. Much labor and the attendant costs in scoring these tests may be avoided if the situation warrants rental of scoring machines.¹ Since teacher-made tests may also be scored in this way, such machines will provide additional savings in some situations. Cooperative use of scoring machines in city schools and the possibility of area cooperation for rural schools have not been fully explored.

Even though his budget is limited, the administrator is responsible for knowing what needs are greatest and filling requests for funds on that basis. In small schools he will be

¹ Information available from International Business Machines, Inc., Test Scoring Division, New York

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responsible for the items in the budget and decisions as to minute details. In large schools guidance directors will attend to budgeting details, but the administrator is responsible for understanding the situation and making intelligent choice when requests are presented.

Selection of Personnel Workers.—There is no greater responsibility than that of selecting the best available persons to perform the varied personnel functions. It can also be said that no responsibility will be more difficult to discharge. Rules have not been formulated and tests developed which are infallible in selecting personnel workers. Personality is of vital importance, but we can judge it only by recommendations, often of little validity, and impressions of the applicant collected during a comparatively brief interview. Administrators may rely somewhat upon the judgment of college teachers of personnel courses, but they cannot escape final responsibility.

A painstaking check must be made of the qualifications of promising applicants against the specific duties, present and future, involved in the position to be filled. The problem is knotty in the case of teachers and teacher-counselors, but much more difficult when specialists must be employed. Experience may be extensive and yet meaningless. Training can be intensive but worthless in view of other limiting conditions such as personality, health, age, and past record. Demands are made for various types of professional graduate work, but difficulty is encountered in evaluating the meaning of such training for the local schools.

Administrators in small schools should seek applicants with combinations of subject matter training and technical background. English teachers with experience in remedial reading are often available. Physical education teachers with training and experience in remedial and preventive work are to be found. Many teachers are trained to administer standardized tests of various types and to carry on

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needed research. Small schools must depend upon such combinations for some years ahead to obtain special personnel services.

Larger schools often employ one or more specialists. School nurses and psychiatric social workers are not new in many school systems. School psychologists are relatively rare in individual schools but common in some school systems. School dentists are sometimes members of the school staff. In many systems arrangements can be made to retain professional people from private practice for clinical services.

The point at which administrators are in greatest danger of error is in selecting counselors. The term does not have the same meaning for all workers in education or in all parts of the country. If a superintendent wishes teacher-counselors who assist students in program making, he should employ those who have an understanding of guidance gained through elementary courses in counseling. These people may deal with routine educational problems which involve registration in courses of study. But this does not indicate that such teacher-counselors should be encouraged or permitted to attempt pupil adjustments of a more complicated type without further training and experience. If administrators desire counselors who will attempt to aid pupils toward adjustment in many areas and with complex problems, only professionally trained counselors should be employed.

Administrators should not be concerned only with the employment of new workers from outside of the school system. In the past few years the desire for professional training has become characteristic of faculty members in many secondary schools. Professional summer-school courses and guidance conferences have helped teachers and teacher-counselors to become more proficient. It is the responsibility of the administrator to know those men and women in his school who are ready for greater responsibility, and to

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promote them or change their duties in line with developing interests and competence. The teacher who moves through the in-service training program to professional graduate study, who has gained experience through use of his free time, and who has a sincere interest in, and aptitude for, personnel work, should be considered for new duties and promotion as the program expands in scope.

In the consideration of administrative responsibilities, attention must be given to the superintendent's understanding of objectives and aims of the program. He should understand not only the present status of the program but also the direction in which expansion should take place. Administrators who limit the long-time objectives to treatment of vocational and educational problems will build their programs along lines very different from those who plan treatment in all adjustment areas.

In planning for the future, the superintendent should become familiar with Allen's five stages of personnel work in secondary schools.¹

Stage One—"Provision is made for the guidance and adjustment of problem pupils at critical periods in their school careers."

During this stage we may characterize the program as dealing with discipline problems through the traditional methods. The principal or the superintendent keeps the student after school, takes away privileges, and sometimes suspends or discharges him from the school. Few competent personnel workers are employed at this stage and the counseling of problem cases usually is done by teachers with sentimental rather than professional techniques. The program does not reach a great number of the students enrolled, and is, in fact, only rudimentarily related to effective personnel work.

¹ ALLEN, RICHARD D., "Testing and Guidance," *The Clearing House*, January, 1937, II 272-276

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Stage Two—"A better understanding of principles and functions of guidance. In this stage guidance functions are delegated to homeroom and subject teachers."

This stage often represents the highest level of development in many schools. From certain points of view this is an advantageous stopping place, absence of special workers keeps costs low and there is little disruption of ordinary administrative and instructional routine. The claim can be made that the school has a personnel program, and few people raise embarrassing questions as to validity of method or outcomes. Much of the present misunderstanding of pupil personnel work comes from these people who have become "professionalized" at this amateur level.

Stage Three—"An appreciation on the part of educators concerning the importance of the scientific study of individual differences as the basis for the adjustment of education to individual needs."

When evolution stops here, personnel work is characterized by overawareness to test scores, the possibility of their misuse, and uncritical devotion to "individualization of education." Intelligence and achievement tests are widely used, homogeneous grouping of students often is made in terms of test scores. Methods of instruction may be changed, and teachers may become acutely conscious of individual pupil differences—albeit without knowing just what to do about them.

Stage Four—"A thoroughgoing reorganization of the school program and curriculum. It implies the abolition of *mass diagnosis* and *mass prescription* and its replacement by individual diagnosis and treatment."

When this stage is reached administrators may speak of their personnel program without fear of challenge. In whatever areas the school seeks individual adjustment, competent workmen are likely to be available. Proper distribution of pupils to curriculums is attempted on an individ-

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ualized basis. Longitudinal and cross-section case histories are available for the majority of students. Counseling for the more complex problems tends to be the responsibility of experienced, professionally trained workers.

This fourth stage need not be reserved to the large city school alone. Part-time teaching combined with specialized personnel services can provide superior services for students in small secondary schools. Long-range policies will permit administrators in small communities to move toward this type of program. Proper use of local community resources and the possibility of coordination of services in larger political units will often provide services which individual schools could never obtain alone. Contributions will be called for from local and county mental and physical health agencies; county social agencies will work with schools on particular cases, business service organizations will give financial and moral support, and the school will repay in kind by cooperating through its own personnel workers.

Stage Five—"We find group guidance a regular part of the curriculum."

Finally the quarrel between generalists and specialists disappears. Workers are allocated to their appointed places in the program. When this point is reached, the administrator may expect that his heaviest chores are under control. Delegation of authority for certain functions leaves him with direct administrative duties in the program.

Program Arrangements.—One of the largest stumbling blocks in a functioning personnel program is the limited time provided for individual work with students. Teachers are responsible for 100 to 200 students each day, leaving little time or energy for productive work with individuals.¹ Even when homerooms are provided, ostensibly for guidance purposes, the per student time allowance approaches the

¹ UMSTATTD, J. G., *Secondary School Teaching*, pp. 412-414, Ginn and Company, Boston, 1937.

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vanishing point. Koos and Kefauver write: "When one considers that the median of 1.5 hours (each week) is an average of but 18 minutes per school day and that the home-rooms in half the schools have less than this amount of time available, one may appreciate why the scope of activity in many is restricted to matters of mere routine."¹

Little is to be gained by decrying the situation. Teachers blame administrators for heavy teaching loads, and administrators charge school boards with responsibility for the condition. Basically the matter rests with what the community can and will provide for its schools. The administrator is faced with two practical problems in providing time for personnel work: (1) methods of freeing time for work with individual students, and (2) avoidance of resentment-creating work loads for other workers in consequence. There is little to be gained if competent personnel workers are employed and then allowed insufficient time to perform their duties. Employment of personnel workers will be even less profitable if they must work with others who are resentful and uncooperative. Administration must be concerned with methods of meeting present conditions rather than waiting until the system is changed or until the community becomes more prosperous.

With adequate leadership personnel work may be carried on without much additional cost. Personal initiative and willingness to work without extra compensation may cause a faculty to produce a needed demonstration of the desirable results of personnel work. This situation develops when an administrator encourages experimentation by interested persons under supervision. Voluntary acceptance of new personnel duties is much more desirable than arbitrary assignment. The administrator's part is encouragement, recognition of services rendered, purchase of supplies and equipment, and an active campaign for community recogni-

¹ KOOS and KEFAUVER, *op. cit.*, p. 551

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tion which will eventually provide for inclusion of the program in the budget as an accepted school function.

Provision for one longer class period during the day to allow time for the teacher-counselor to work with students may add to the effectiveness of counseling. One California experiment, described by Mackenzie, is representative of such plans. In a core or basic course, students meet with the same teacher for a double period each day. In this period instructional, as well as group and individual functions, are discharged. The number of students dealt with each day is reduced, greater opportunity is afforded for personal relationships between teacher and student, and methods are used which make possible better counseling, more group testing, and other personnel activities.¹

In large schools Becker's methods of freeing time offer interesting possibilities. Of student program shift she says: "If five teachers are assigned to guidance work in a school with 105 teaching positions, a pupil period load of 5,000 must be distributed over the total pupil period load of 100,000 of the remaining 100 teachers. This represents an addition of two pupils to each class met during the week."²

Although the number of faculty members released for personnel work would vary from school to school, the shifting of class schedules could release two persons in a faculty of fifty and one from a faculty of twenty-five. If classes are large under any arrangement, little disservice to students will result from enrollment of thirty-five students rather than thirty-two or thirty-three.

In a few schools discipline is still enforced in corridors and study halls through police duty by teachers who are assigned periods in which they are "the law." The personnel work approach to discipline should make such policing unneces-

¹ MACKENZIE, GORDON N, "Core-curriculum Developments in California," *The School Review*, May, 1939, 47 337-351

² BECKER, ELSA G, "Guidance in the Large High School," *High Points*, June, 1934, 16 14

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sary, although the period of transition may be painful to traditional disciplinarians. Further time for personnel work may be gained by releasing the time of one person in those schools which use two teachers for maintaining order in study halls. The practice of making study hall supervision a specialty is found in many large secondary schools. The best qualified faculty members spend the greatest part of their time in supervising study for groups as large as three hundred.

Careful inspection of the extracurricular activity program will sometimes show possible changes which will free teachers' time for personnel work. Some schools follow a policy of assigning one such activity to each faculty member. Many schools will find that certain activities have outgrown their original usefulness. Literary clubs are kept alive through concentrated faculty effort rather than student interest, little theaters take the place of various dramatic organizations but the older organization lingers on, small language clubs join the "living dead" and absorb an unjustified amount of faculty time. Extracurricular activities should be inventoried and readjusted each year. Those which cannot hold student interest without undue force feeding should be dropped. Time which formerly was devoted by teachers to unproductive activities may then be used for necessary personnel work.

In-service Training.—A personnel program will be successful to the extent that faculty cooperation and participation can be enlisted. Cooperation and participation are based upon the understanding and the development of a personnel point of view. Regardless of school size, the in-service training program is vital if all personnel workers are to aid students in adjustments to the school environment. In many situations administrators will take a direct part in the training program. This is more frequently true of small schools.

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Basic principles which should determine the nature of this in-service training program include the following:

- 1 The program should be fitted to the present interest and understanding of teachers

- 2 The training program should be progressive, plans should be made to take the faculty from the present point of view to a more advanced position.

- 3 In-service training programs should be fitted to the local situation in terms of practical techniques, as well as educational objectives

- 4 It should be planned in terms of long-time objectives as well as of present needs, it should prepare for what the program will probably be two or five years hence

- 5 The program will yield the best results if participation is voluntary and not compulsory

Large schools frequently place responsibility for in-service training in the hands of the guidance director. But administrators are responsible for seeing that a sound program is operated. They must understand what is being done and why it is done. They are directly responsible for evaluating and developing such a program as will contribute to the making of a better school

In the small school the superintendent or principal will be responsible for the details of in-service training. His tasks will be simpler since the program tends to be less complex. Where training is set up in large political divisions, small schools may join together in one in-service training program. Specific application to local situations may be achieved through teachers' meetings and staff clinics.¹

Coordination of Personnel Services.—Coordination of personnel services in large secondary schools brings regular

¹ American Association of School Administrators, *Seventeenth Yearbook*, Chap VII, "Schools in Small Communities," American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D C, February, 1939

In 1938 Los Angeles County, Calif, instituted a common guidance service for small secondary schools "Occupational Adjustment Cues," *Occupations*, April, 1938, 16 667-670

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lines of administrative authority directly into the program. In the small school, where the superintendent or principal is the director of guidance, no clear differentiation can be made between delegated supervision and administrative authority. Behind the voluntary efforts of teachers and others lies the administrator's power to say, "This is part of your work." Seldom used as a direct pressure, the power to assign duties is nevertheless important in coordination and development of a personnel program. Without it a few recalcitrants may seriously hamper the efforts of enthusiastic teachers.

Coordinative responsibilities of the administrator are two-fold: arrangement for coordination of available school and community personnel resources; and direct coordination of physical plant resources for the purpose of smooth operation. The first function is often delegated to responsible persons; the second usually is a direct duty, at least in the early stages of the developing program.

Coordinating responsibility for services available in the school includes administrative backing for the director of guidance, or chief counselor, in collection of case history data from various sources and referral for special treatment. Faculty members, teachers, administrators, and specialists are informed as to their duties. The guidance director can then collect what is needed for the case history without undue difficulty. The administrator sometimes uses the prestige of his position to obtain cooperation from services in the community in order that case history data will be available to the counselors.¹

Physical resources and housing of personnel services are part of the superintendent's administrative duties. Much experimentation with the physical plant is needed to discover optimal conditions for personnel work. The literature related to physical placement and necessary facilities

¹ ZAPOLEON, MARGUERITE WYKOFF, "The Counselor and Community Resources," *Occupations*, April, 1938, 16.632-635.

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furnishes some leads as to what is most desirable in implementing the personnel program.

Local conditions, such as the amount of available clerical help, available filing equipment, and crowded building conditions, may dictate that personnel records be filed in the general school office.¹ This is not an ideal arrangement, although it often is the most convenient for school routine. A better plan, from the standpoint of personnel workers, is the separation of the case history from usual school records and their placement in the counselors' offices.

Few schools have made the most efficient use of plant facilities in achieving coordination. We are all familiar with the housing of personnel services on different floors of a large building. The administrative office and its records are on the main floor, the school nurse has an office at the end of a far corridor, counseling offices are located on the second floor, tests are administered in a third-floor study hall, and the deans of boys and girls are hidden in inaccessible corners. Such arrangements are inefficient. Students and faculty members begrudge the time and footwork necessary to make contacts. Therefore, as many personnel workers as possible should be housed on the same floor, in close proximity to the administrative offices and the school records.

Utilizing the Curriculum in Personnel Work.—Curricular problems directly concerned with the personnel program include distribution and adjustment to the present curriculum and methods of making this curriculum more effective through new teaching techniques. Enrichment and individualization of the curriculum are matters of content and teaching methods. Reorganization of the curriculum has been discussed in Chap. V, we are here concerned with administrative problems involved in persuading per-

¹ BROWN, MARIAN, and VIBELLA MARTIN, "Records as Tools in the Study of Adolescents," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Nov. 11, 1936, 15 207-215

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sonnel workers to use whatever curriculum is accepted by the school.

Williamson and Darley do not believe that radical changes in course of study are necessary for effective personnel work. Speaking generally of the curriculum and personnel work they state their position as follows

Contrary to unfriendly critics of this proposal, individualization does not mean one teacher and one course of study for each student. It does mean educational planning for each student in terms of available course offerings that serve as resources in meeting the student's needs. Individualization is achieved by discovering such needs through a detailed analysis of each student, instead of handing down from on high academic prescriptions for hypothetical students. Specifically, this policy means the enrollment of each student only in those available courses which he can absorb with profit to himself and society.¹

Policy Making.—General policies which govern operations of the school include the personnel program. In the more complex programs of large schools, necessity may exist for special administrative policy in regard to personnel practices. Policies directly related to the personnel program should be adopted only after consideration, criticism, and suggestions by the personnel workers. Unusual circumstances, which are characteristic of personnel work and its emphasis upon individuals, often create difficulties in formulating personnel policies. For example, a certain school had no administrative policy in regard to the use of tests. All went well until copies of the Bell Adjustment Inventory were given to some forty pupils with instructions to return the tests the next day. The superintendent's telephone began ringing shortly after the close of school and continued to ring until late in the evening. Parents were disturbed with this practice and students could add but

¹ WILLIAMSON, E. G., and J. G. DARLEY, *Student Personnel Work*, p. 22, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

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little to their understanding of why the school was asking for answers to this type of questions. What should the policy be in a case such as this?

Proper selection of personnel workers will avoid many of the difficulties which result from hard and fast policy. Administrators who place personnel activities in the hands of competent directors and counselors usually follow a policy of allowing them to determine their own program policies. Unless the administrator is in direct charge of the program or is unusually well-informed and closely in contact with his program, the internal policies of personnel work, where they do not conflict with school policy, are probably best handled by the workers themselves.

Evaluation of the Personnel Program.—Evaluation of the effectiveness of personnel work can not as yet be adequate. The problem is so broad and reaches into so many specific areas that present techniques cannot give valid and comprehensive information. Added to this difficulty is that of obtaining workers who are trained to evaluate objectively and soundly. Some phases of the program have been explored, but they are not numerous enough to aid the administrator greatly. In the typical secondary school, administrators seldom make use of the research which is available, nevertheless, it is a direct responsibility of the conscientious administrator to evaluate the outcomes of his program.

He should know what problems are being adjusted and to what extent. He should have some basis for judging the effectiveness of counseling techniques and should know the extent to which the faculty as a whole is being aided and are themselves contributing to counseling. Most important of all is the collecting of dependable evidence as to what desirable changes are taking place in the attitudes, adjustments, and distribution of the student body. None of these items should be taken for granted until thoroughly sound investigations have been made.

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Only as he evaluates from the available information can the administrator justify the existence of the program in his school. If he is to avoid a complacent satisfaction based upon his own hunches and feelings, much effort must be made to study personnel work in an objective and critical manner. Human nature has hardly reached a point where even personnel workers can be left to evaluate their work for administrative superiors. The best personnel work will result when the program is an integral part of the whole educative system. Responsibility for evaluating the many efforts to achieve an effective program must rest upon the school administrator and his assistants.

In summary, we point out that our discussion of the role of the administrator in the personnel program has been limited to those issues which are most important in the typical school. We discussed a number of aspects of administration including finances, selection of personnel, program arrangements, in-service training, coordination of services, using the curriculum, policy making, and evaluation of outcomes.

Responsibility for other aspects of the personnel program may be delegated to an assistant superintendent, principal, or director of guidance. Such delegation is possible only when the administrator has confidence in the person or persons to whom he delegates these powers and privileges. Even with complete confidence in his workers, he still must be critical in evaluating the outcomes of what they do. This evaluation cannot be delegated. The administrator must understand personnel work to an extent which will permit critical inspection and suggestions leading to desirable change.

SUPERVISION OF PERSONNEL SERVICES

In the preceding section of this chapter, we discussed a number of administrative functions performed by the

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superintendent in his capacity as general administrator. These functions were not directly concerned with the details of the personnel program but involved broader aspects of administration. Someone, however, must give to personnel work the same type of direct and detailed supervision which teaching supervisors and principals give to instruction. It is to this type of supervision that we now turn our attention. In our discussion of the functions of supervision we again recognize that in many schools the superintendent performs both administrative and supervisory duties. In other schools a director of guidance or a supervisor of counselors devotes his efforts to the details of restricted phases of the program. But in few schools is one person responsible for supervising all phases of the total personnel program. Consequently there is sometimes lack of coordination among personnel activities. A case in point is the independent functioning of student activities and individual counseling. As our knowledge increases of the administrative and supervisory aspects of personnel programs, we may anticipate the correction of this deficiency in modern personnel work.

The Director of Guidance.—Directors of guidance, in the sense of professionally trained workers to whom broad powers can be safely delegated, are few in number in secondary schools. This is particularly true of the situation in schools not part of a large city system and is caused by two major factors. (1) properly qualified workers have not been available,¹ and (2) widespread attempts to initiate the type of program which uses professional workers have been few.² Summarizing a study³ by Brunner, Lorge, and Price, Jones says:

¹ *The Advisory Committee on Education: Report of the Committee*, p. 107, Government Printing Office, Washington, D C, February, 1938

² BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S, IRVING LORGE, and RALPH G PRICE, "Vocational Guidance in Village High Schools," *Teachers College Record*, December, 1937, 39 218-229

³ *Ibid.*, pp 218-229

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The study . . . showed the general situation in one hundred and forty village schools in scattered areas throughout the United States. The same schools were studied in 1924, 1930,¹ and 1936. In 1924 none of the high schools in this sample of American agricultural communities offered guidance, and at the time of the survey of 1930 only five had introduced this work. Between 1930 and 1932, the list increased by twelve high schools, and by 1936 fifty additional schools were providing guidance. At this time four-fifths of the Middle Atlantic communities, two-thirds of those in the Middlewest, and less than a third of those in the South and Far West were offering guidance as part of their educational function. The types of guidance given varied greatly. Only three schools out of the one hundred and forty studied had records in any way adequate for guidance purposes. The organization of the guidance program was usually very simple. In only one or two schools was there found evidence of a well-organized, complete program, with full-time counselor, guidance committee, and curriculum adjustments.²

This unsatisfactory condition may be corrected by new developments. In one direction we note the efforts of certain state rehabilitation departments to set professional standards at a level which forces schools to employ trained workers to discover youth who should be referred to the rehabilitation department.³ A second factor is the increasing emphasis upon personnel work in training courses for teachers and administrators. Community and parental pressures likewise influence the school to provide personnel services for students. Recent investigations, such as the Regents' Inquiry in New York State⁴ and the Maryland Study,⁵ are giving impetus to a demand for properly organized and directed personnel programs in all schools.

¹ JONES, ARTHUR J., "Programs of Guidance and Counseling," *Review of Educational Research*, April, 1939, 9 186

² FINCH, F. H., "Qualifications for Rehabilitation Counselors," *Occupations*, April, 1937, 15 628-630

³ ECKERT, RUTH E., and THOMAS O. MARSHALL, *When Youth Leave School*, The Regents' Inquiry, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938

⁴ SPAULDING, FRANCIS T., *High School and Life*, The Regents' Inquiry, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938

⁵ BELL, HOWARD M., *Youth Tell Their Story*, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1938.

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If the problem of obtaining competent directors of personnel work were merely that of employing men and women with advanced degrees in applied psychology, many of the present difficulties could be solved. However, adequate preparation includes, in addition, a thorough, firsthand knowledge of secondary schools and the attendant everyday routine. A prospective director should gain classroom experience and then return to graduate school for professional training; or he should obtain a teacher's certificate along with the advanced degree and then serve a teaching apprenticeship of a year or more in a secondary school. Since modern personnel practices are depending more upon clinical procedures, the prospective director should have served a clinical internship in a recognized clinic at the secondary or college level.¹

The specific responsibilities of the director may be discovered by analyzing the duties for which he is responsible. Marshall describes the functions of a guidance program as follows:

The chief function of a guidance department was conceived as the making of a continuing study of the student body whereby a record can be made and kept of the intelligence, the (special) abilities, and the aptitudes of each pupil by the collection and utilization of the following data: 1) general educational capacities of a pupil, determined by the frequent administration of standard tests of intelligence, achievement, and special ability; 2) a health record of each pupil, noting any physical disabilities which might interfere with the pupil's vocational and educational adjustment, 3) confidential transcripts of all personal interviews of the pupil with teachers, administrators, and guidance workers (a record should be kept of each pupil's social and emotional behavior), 4) a record of what parents have to communicate concerning the adjustment of the pupil, note being kept of the parent's plans for the child, such as continued education and vocational choice; and 5) a personalized synthesis of all available information for each pupil, made by a trained guidance worker before the pupil's registration in

¹ WILLIAMSON, E. G., and M. M. SUKOV, "An Apprentice Method for Training Counselors," *Occupations*, June, 1938, 16.872-873

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high school, in order that he may be directed to the educational curriculum which seems best for his adjustment.¹

Obviously a director who can supervise and direct such a program must be more than a vocational or educational counselor as we know them today

Few schools are now in a position to bid for the services of a director trained to perform these duties. Practical considerations dictate that many administrators must at present select directors who have not yet arrived at a high professional level, but who are capable of securing the necessary training. Small secondary schools will provide training experience for workers who are advancing professionally. Small schools must, therefore, avoid any attempt to perform services which are beyond the present abilities of their available workers. These schools will, for the most part, fill positions through in-service training of present employees. Larger schools will also follow this plan but in many cases they will employ professionally trained workers

Facilities for Counseling.—The program director is responsible for many activities which are concerned with creating a situation in which the teachers, counselors, and specialists can best perform their services. Centering educational and community resources on the student's problems is the objective; our topic of discussion at this point concerns the methods used to achieve this objective.

The personnel worker will be a more efficient, less harried individual, if working conditions are optimal. Adequate equipment and facilities include.

1. A centralized location near the administrative offices and records.
2. Equipment and supplies necessary for providing essential services with a minimum of effort.
3. Facilities for group and individual testing.

¹ MARSHALL, J. E., "The St. Paul Program of Guidance," *The School Review*, May, 1938, 46.374-380

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4. Interview offices which insure privacy.
5. Ease of access for pupils and faculty.

These items may be related to Fig. 1, which presents the floor plan of a counseling office in a single school

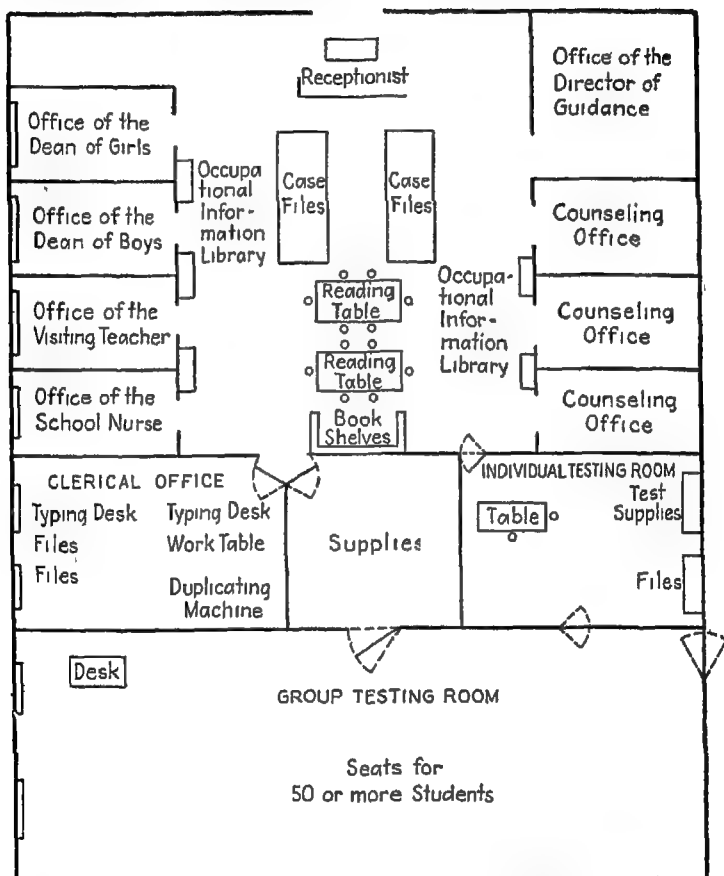


FIG 1 —Floor-plan for a personnel office

Counseling offices should be near the administrative offices. This location permits use of records and close working relationships with the administrative officers of the school. A

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central location is also an aid to student and faculty contacts. Under these conditions parents and others from the community would have less difficulty in locating personnel workers, particularly in large school buildings.

Coordination of all personnel workers is facilitated by use of proper equipment and adequate supplies. Equipment includes filing cabinets, desks, chairs, office machinery, bookshelves, reading tables, stop watches, and testing materials. Special supplies include paper-and-pencil tests and inventories, cumulative record devices, mimeographed or printed special forms, and other items used in case histories. Needs of the program are dependent upon size, program stage, and available personnel workers.

The counseling offices should include facilities for administration of individual and group tests. The rooms used for individual testing should be designed to insure freedom from noise and interruptions. Group tests may sometimes be administered in an adjoining classroom. Reservation of this same room for group guidance classes will permit use of materials available in the personnel offices.

Many schools will add to the effectiveness of the program if the interview offices of counselors are located in the program offices. The offices of the school director and offices for teacher-counselors also should be located here. These offices should insure complete privacy and the necessary equipment includes desk, chairs, filing cabinet, and bookshelves. These offices may be used by several persons through staggered scheduling of work periods.

Often a school will find it advisable to place guidance reading materials in the program office. Occupational information, college and technical school catalogues, and orientation material will be needed for pupils. Faculty members will find this reading-room service convenient for using professional books and periodicals in their in-service training. If the program offices are used for case conferences and guidance

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committee meetings, location of the professional library in this place is desirable.

In-service Training.—Planning for and administering the in-service training program is a responsibility frequently delegated to the director of the personnel program. The details of this training program were discussed in a preceding section of this chapter and need not be repeated here.

Collection of Case Data.—Supervision of the personnel program includes responsibility for the methods used to collect information concerning individual students. Arrangements for collection of these data constitute a large portion of the director's duties. No two schools will collect exactly the same data or utilize the same methods of collecting. In programs which are efficiently administered, certain types of information are collected for all pupils and additional special information is collected when a student seeks assistance from a counselor.

Information must be properly summarized and recorded if it is to be incorporated in a case history. Sources of recorded information include students, teachers, counselors, administrative records, and various individuals and agencies in the community. For a detailed discussion the reader is referred to Chap. VII. For administrative convenience the director must develop record forms which are appropriate to the conditions found in his school. Personnel program record forms should be flexible and subject to changes to meet new conditions and new practices. Many programs make a practice of utilizing duplicating machines for all forms, this procedure allows for inexpensive changes from year to year.

Supervision of Counseling.—Schools will rarely be so small, or their students so free from problems with which they need help, that the director can perform all counseling functions. He must select and train teachers to assist in interviewing and advising students. No step in personnel work is more important than selection of the counselor who

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will be an aid and confidant to a student. Assigning students to counselors is, therefore, an administrative duty of the director. Many considerations will determine whether student X shall go to counselor A or to counselor B.

Rapport between the counselor and the students he counsels is of primary importance. Students will be aided only by counselors in whom they have confidence. If the school is not too large, the director should be able to identify the more difficult student cases who should be referred to the more effective counselor. In larger schools the office receptionist may be requested to reserve certain types of cases for the consideration of the director. In some schools all students are requested to indicate a first, second, and third choice for a faculty adviser or counselor.

The type and complexity of a student's problems must be considered in his referral to a counselor. Many problems are within the capabilities of certain teacher-counselors. Problems of this nature usually are identified by the teacher and counseled directly without having the student request assignment to a counselor. Other students seek counseling because of more serious and complex problems and should be referred in a more formal, but not impersonal, manner to a counselor. The office procedure of this referral should be characterized by courtesy and not by the casualness so often found in office treatment of students by school clerks. Many emotional problems, practically all health problems, and some social behavior are beyond the resources of the school program and often should be referred directly to personnel specialists.

The case load of counselors and teacher-counselors must be constantly studied in order to prevent overwork and stereotyped interviewing. Mere number of cases handled is no indication of the quality of a personnel program. Since many schools have too few personnel workers to counsel all students in an effective manner, students needing immediate

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aid must be carefully identified so that the admittedly inadequate counseling staff may function properly in the cases they do handle. The director must constantly watch for common types of problems which may be handled through improved teaching methods, orientation to school activities, and curricular changes. When these problems are discovered, steps should be taken to develop preventive measures which will reduce the number of students needing individual attention.

SUMMARY

In this chapter we have discussed the personnel functions of the general administrator, the superintendent, and the supervisor, or director, of guidance. In common with the instructional program, personnel work necessitates attention to budgetary and other administrative functions in addition to detailed supervision of the counseling program. This latter function centers in the development of methods and techniques which permit individual case work to be efficiently done. Facilities, in-service training program, and the routine of office procedures are included in the duties of the director who must obtain cooperation from faculty, administration, students, and community workers. Many aspects of personnel administration have not yet been analyzed, and at present few workers are trained to perform the necessary duties. Nevertheless, there is reason to hope that large numbers of schools will provide services eventually directed by workers who are trained to perform the duties and carry the responsibilities necessary to increase the effectiveness of the personnel program.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. Differentiate between administrative and supervisory functions.
2. What criteria should a superintendent or principal use in selecting personnel workers?

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3. How may a superintendent provide for counseling without increasing his staff? Are there any disadvantages in such an action?

4. What responsibility does the administrator of a small high school have in the in-service training program? How does this differ from the responsibility of the large school administrator?

5. What reasons are there for feeling that the present curriculum may be adequate if it is flexible and teaching methods are effective?

6. How would you evaluate the results of a personnel program in a small rural school? In a school with 750 students? In a school with 2500 students?

7. What are the conditions which have retarded the development of adequate personnel programs in secondary schools?

8. Why have personnel programs expanded during a major economic depression?

9. What has been the nature of this expansion?

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CHAPTER XI

Initial Steps in Developing a Personnel Program

HOW can I develop a guidance program in my high school?" Probably this question is asked most frequently by recent converts to the movement of individualizing education. A proper answer to this question would be "Begin where you now are. Even though you may not be aware of it, you undoubtedly already are doing a great many things which are personnel activities. Make an inventory of your present program, and then I can answer your question. First discover where you are before you decide in what direction and how far you can and should go. Then you will be able to develop a sound plan for the improvement and extension of your personnel program."

If a recent convert to the personnel point of view attempts to follow these suggestions he will take three steps:

1. He will make a detailed inventory of the school's activities which are of a personnel nature and another inventory of the teachers who are already doing or can be persuaded to perform counseling functions
2. After consultation with the school's staff and with workers in other schools, he will tentatively decide which parts of the present program need to be and can be strengthened, and what new ones need to be organized in the near future
3. He will begin the process of educating the school's staff about the needed changes and about the first steps to be taken.

One acquainted with the type of personnel program outlined in preceding chapters will readily see that it is of minor importance at what point a school begins to individualize its program. The point at which each school should begin its

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program is determined by local conditions of teachers' practices, attitudes and training, school and community resources, and other considerations. The important thing is a thorough knowledge of the present status of the school and of what should be done, over a period of years, to develop an adequate program. Without this preliminary study of the situation, there is danger of merely imitating other schools and failing to develop a vital program.

A warning to administrators is issued by Hahn when he says:

Too frequently an administrator will inspect a personnel program which has been developed painfully over a long period of time, make comparisons with his own school, and come to the *correct* conclusion that his school board would not appropriate funds to duplicate what he has seen. At this point the administrator abandons consideration of a personnel program as a practical procedure. What he has not seen is the fact that his school must start *where it is*. If it has no program, the anecdotal method offers a logical springboard. If his program has reached a stage of arrested development at the level of vocational information, intelligence testing, or counseling by "non-counseling counselors," he may, through lack of understanding, see the level as an end and not as a beginning. In considering the cost of a pupil-personnel program, he is faced with the necessity of seeing several years into the future. The question is not how much will be needed now to copy a model program from some other institution, but rather one of seeing where the school is and estimating the cost of a program which will permit the beginning of growth toward an adequate program.¹

Organization plans for expansion of the present program need not be elaborate. The administrator, with the help of an advisory committee of teachers, should consider carefully the problem of delegating specific responsibility for various functions of the program. Great care should be taken in determining qualifications of the person who is to assume immediate supervision of personnel work in the school. Organization should be flexible in order that changes may be

¹ HAHN, MILTON E, "What Price Pupil-personnel Work?" *The School Review*, May, 1939, 47:374-380.

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made as new needs arise in the school and community. Community resources must be reviewed and also the technical assistance of colleges and universities in the vicinity. Programs founded upon such a sound foundation will encounter far fewer difficulties than those which follow Topsy as a model for growth.

Of major consideration in developing a personnel program is the problem of an adequate staff. Even in a large school system many new personnel workers cannot be immediately employed. The beginner is often overwhelmed by lists of functions presented as minimum for a personnel program. But these duties are not to be confused with the number of workers needed. Because there is no known way to discuss a whole program at the same time, we have described each personnel function in terms of the worker who performs that function. We recognize, however, that in very few schools would it be possible to find a worker who performs only one of these functions. We do not even contend that in an ideal program would there be one worker for each function. Certainly in a practical school situation we recognize that workers must perform more than one function.

The most usual condition is one in which Mr. Jones is a counselor who teaches two group guidance classes. The school in which he teaches has twenty teachers and of this number he is the only one professionally trained to administer tests, score them, and interpret the results, this condition makes him the school psychometrist. Mr. Jones is also adviser for the junior class, which classifies part of his work in the group type of personnel workers. If the administrator of the school wishes to enumerate the personnel services in his school, he is justified in listing as follows

Group guidance—two classes in Occupations	(Mr. Jones)
Psychological testing	(Mr. Jones)
Individual counseling service	(Mr. Jones)
Group-type—class organizations	(Mr. Jones and others)

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If Mr. Jones is not listed after each of his responsibilities, the impression is immediately given that there are four persons functioning in the personnel program, one for each of the activities listed. Incidentally if our hypothetical Mr. Jones actually exists, we may conclude that he is indeed an industrious personnel worker. Until more adequate finances are available, however, Mr. Jones may need to do as effective work as he can under difficult conditions.

We turn to other aspects of the development of a personnel program. In organizing his program, the administrator is, in a broad sense, dealing with a major problem which has three aspects. These may be stated as objectives to be achieved:

- 1 To gain teachers' cooperation and participation
- 2 To provide in-service training for those who desire to become participants in certain phases of the program
- 3 To insure ease and efficiency of administration

Obviously, a plan of development which will attain all of these objectives will require much time and effort since each school is faced with limiting factors peculiar to itself. In many instances these limitations cannot be removed in the near future. In other instances early steps can be taken which will widen the scope of the program by changing or removing some of the present limitations. Provision for constant development from the present status toward a reasonable goal must be made with a greater emphasis upon integration and coordination than upon mere expansion. We cannot, of course, attempt to furnish blueprints applicable to all school situations. This is avoided in the following discussion. Rather do we suggest methods which are usable to some extent in all schools. By use of various techniques the administrator must start his program with whatever facilities are available, integrate and coordinate them, and thus move steadily in the direction of a program which gives

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to each student that type of assistance needed to develop his potentialities.

SECURING TEACHERS' COOPERATION AND PARTICIPATION

Often administrators encounter obstacles in gaining support from faculties. Many teachers are not interested in students. Others are not temperamentally fitted to discharge personnel functions. Ambitious but untrained and sentimental faculty members may, through well-meaning but bungling efforts, do more harm than good. Failure on the part of the administration to clarify the immediate objectives, plans, and techniques may add confusion to the issue. In this regard the report of the Advisory Committee on Education states:

The guidance programs of the schools are frequently handicapped by insufficient understanding of guidance procedures on the part of other persons in the school system. Without the understanding and cooperation of school administrators and homeroom teachers, a guidance program cannot be of maximum service to the pupils of the school.¹

The teachers' meeting, judiciously used, offers an opportunity to lay the cards upon the table for discussions of policy, duties of each worker, possible benefits to students, methods and techniques, and other considerations which involve the whole staff of the school. Caution should be exercised in the number of such meetings called and the duration of each meeting. Speakers from other institutions, reports by faculty members, and reviews of current guidance literature add interest and usefulness to the occasion.

Skillful use of the teachers' meeting often paves the way to faculty participation, provided that undue pressure is not employed. The in-service training program will be sup-

¹ The Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, p. 109, U S Government Printing Office, Washington, D C, February, 1938

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ported if all teachers understand the implications of the program for themselves and their students. Teachers opposed to the program, and the number is often surprisingly large, may voice opposition which would not be voiced under other circumstances. Enthusiasts will also have their day in court to further the efforts of the administrator. One or two meetings will not produce the desired results. Careful planning over a relatively long period of time will be necessary.

Administrators, considering conditions in their own schools and communities, must organize committees to further the development of acceptable faculty attitudes toward the program. The number of committees should be large enough to include all important viewpoints but small enough to allow committee membership to be meaningful. Two committees useful in the majority of secondary schools are the faculty committee on the personnel program and the faculty-community committee, the latter organized for the purpose of obtaining cooperation between the school program and community agencies.

The faculty committee on the personnel program¹ may be set up for purely organizational purposes with the understanding that, as the program develops, the function of the committee changes. Wise administrators, realizing the difficulty of overcoming prejudices, tradition, and natural human inertia, will make appointments to this committee which avoid any suspicion of pressure or an inner circle. The main school departments and faculty groupings should be represented. Often the placing of the most vocal faculty critics upon the committee is desirable. The committee is first of all a liaison agency with the whole faculty and secondly an advisory group to the administration upon matters of policy and program development.

¹ KOOS, LEONARD V., and GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, p. 586, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933

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Much can be said in favor of the faculty-community committee. In smaller schools the function of this committee may be more important than in larger institutions. Attention is directed to the part that it can play by including the community in the program, aid in obtaining necessary funds, donations of equipment; and numerous specialized services which may be made available through agents and agencies not connected with the schools. The administrator, chief counselor, and perhaps one or two teachers should represent the schools. Community representatives should be appointed from agencies which serve problem areas in which common student maladjustments occur. Medical, psychiatric, and dental workers, parent-teacher and youth organizations, social agencies, charitable and educational institutions—all important contributors in helping solve the problems of boys and girls of school age—should be represented on this committee. In a far larger way than is usually recognized, the school personnel program must coordinate itself and its workers with community affairs affecting all youth.

An additional type of committee needed in many schools is that devoted to special personnel projects. Specific problem areas require intensive study. Student failures may be excessive, the curriculum may need revision; financial difficulties which demand community aid are often present; the marking system may be unsatisfactory. These and a host of other perplexing questions may demand answers which can best be discovered through the deliberations of small faculty committees. Through this approach the majority of interested teachers can be given an opportunity to participate actively. Many who cannot function adequately as counselors will welcome this opportunity to be of service.

Other methods of securing teachers' cooperation may be mentioned. Although the case conference is primarily a

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method of counseling, it is also a useful method for the purpose of demonstrating, to faculty and community workers alike, the opportunities for cooperation and participation in the personnel program. A more detailed discussion of this technique will be in order when in-service training is considered in the following pages.

Many teachers are genuinely interested in reading the literature of the personnel field. At small expense the administrator will find that he is able to supply books and periodicals for the use of the faculty. A small sum of money spent each year for professional materials will, over a relatively short period of time, build a more than adequate section in the library for teachers. One teacher should be given the responsibility for seeing that this material is up-to-date and readily available. Nontechnical information may be circulated through the publication of a bulletin concerned with the personnel program. Such bulletins, including case studies, committee reports, general information, advance notices of proposed changes in procedures, criticisms of existing methods, and other similar items, will keep teachers alert to the growth of the program.

Personal conferences between the administrator and teachers can be used to advantage in obtaining support and aid from persons who are not active but who could make contributions. Personal recognition is an effective incentive to become more interested and active in any cooperative enterprise. Every encouragement and opportunity should be given to teachers to experiment in their particular phase of the total program.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF PERSONNEL WORKERS

A well-organized personnel program must provide for in-service training of all types of personnel workers in addition to securing the enthusiastic cooperation of all teachers. The methods used will vary widely in terms of the present

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status of the program, size of the school, training and experience of available workers, and many other factors. We shall consider a number of methods of training teachers in the performance of their personnel functions. Obviously these methods are supplements to, and not substitutes for, professional training offered by colleges of education and departments of psychology.

An elementary method involves providing general information concerning the objectives and techniques of personnel work. Specifically, this training relates generalities to the particular school program in which the work is being done. At this level the formation of proper attitudes toward personnel work as an individual responsibility of teachers is important.

Demonstrations of techniques and methods by well-trained workers contribute to the growth of the program in the school. This phase of the training is concerned with attendance at and membership in guidance organizations and also the use of experts brought into the school for instructional purposes.

Encouragement of professional training for competent workers who wish to become counselors may take the form of special training opportunities provided by the administrator through seminars conducted by specialists several times a year, financial subsidies for college courses during vacation periods, and internship type of training in schools with programs which are advanced to a level where such training is practical.

The simplest and most used technique of in-service training is the teachers' meeting. Since attitude toward the program is important, these meetings should be organized in such a way as to develop desirable mental sets. Outside speakers should be obtained to point up the special emphases of the program. Mental hygiene; individualization of instruction; diagnosis of emotional and social disturbances in individual

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pupils; employment of experts in the counseling of serious problem cases; available case history data as it affects the classroom and the pupils; detailed study of techniques such as the anecdotal methods—all of these methods constitute a core about which the teachers' meetings can be organized

The case conference is a useful method for demonstrating techniques and methods¹ While a model conference could be used in a general teachers' meeting, the training is usually more effective if only teachers concerned with an individual pupil are invited to attend

Local and noncredit personnel seminars are often used for training purposes. This method utilizes the work of personnel workers from near-by colleges in attacking the problems of a particular school. A series of weekly or biweekly meetings are conducted, under the auspices of the school or school system, by competent persons in the field on subjects and along lines pertinent to the personnel program being organized This method may be very effective since a seminar series can be geared to any type of function adjusted to any level In some instances a fee may be charged to defray costs, in other cases the school systems pay the expenses The best results will be obtained if attendance at such in-service training seminars is voluntary.

In addition to the teachers' meeting, the staff-clinic, and seminar courses, a reading program should be developed. Magazines such as *Occupations* should be provided A special library of books on the various phases of personnel work should be purchased from school or personal funds and the material made readily available to interested faculty members. Announcements of summer-school courses and conferences should be posted to keep teachers informed of opportunities for training outside of the school program.

¹ HAHN, M. E., "The Staff-clinic in the Pupil-personnel Program," *The School Review*, January, 1939, 47 32-36

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ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAM FOR EASE AND EFFICIENCY OF ADMINISTRATION

In the chapter dealing with administration, emphasis was placed upon the part played by the administrator in regard to broad administrative problems. Obviously it is only the administrator in the smallest institution who will be able to attend to the details which are so necessary to successful outcomes in personnel work.

The growing program, becoming more coordinated and integrated with other school functions, requires that the machinery by which it operates be organized in such a manner that development is promoted with the least possible lost motion. In small schools this machinery will tend to be simple, inexpensive, and secondary in importance to other phases of the program. When larger schools are considered, the necessity for adequate organization becomes greater and specialists may be needed to deal with organizational problems which do not exist in rural or small community school systems.

Problems which assume increasing importance in larger schools have to do with

1. Providing physical space and equipment
2. Recording of personnel data
3. In-service training
4. Coordination of personnel workers of all types
5. Allocation of students to workers
6. Clerical work.
7. Ordering of supplies
8. Supervision of the testing program.
9. Research.
10. Committee activities.
11. Budgeting by the school principal
12. Issuance of faculty bulletins
13. Community contacts.

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The administrative details are so great that a school administrator could not cope with them without the aid of assistants. The administrator must develop that form of organization which best meets his local situation.

Organizing the Small School.—In schools which have no present organization of personnel services, a simple beginning is desirable. Grandiose plans seldom are feasible. If the administrator can obtain cooperation from his fellow workers in mastering simple techniques, he has made a laudable beginning. If community resources are coordinated with the school program during the initial steps, much progress has been made.

Organization and functions of the personnel program in a small school might be outlined as follows:

THE ADMINISTRATOR (with consent of the school board)

1. Plans a program.
2. Reserves certain active duties to himself.
3. Appoints the Faculty Committee on Personnel Work, the School-community Committee on Personnel Work, and other committees.

THE FACULTY COMMITTEE ON PERSONNEL WORK

1. Fosters proper faculty attitudes.
2. Helps with in-service training
3. Gives advice when asked
4. Helps shape the program through active participation

THE SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COMMITTEE ON PERSONNEL WORK

Coordinates school and community resources and integrates them with the school personnel program for aiding in the solution of pupil problems.

TEACHER-COUNSELORS

1. Aid pupils by individualization of subject matter materials
2. Contribute to the case history concerning anecdotal information, behavior, and gross maladjustments in any area.

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GROUP WORKERS

1. Deal with pupils in extracurricular activities
2. Discover special interests and aptitudes of students and inform school counselors about them.

SCHOOL COUNSELORS

Make use of the material contributed to the case history in counseling individual pupils who need aid in the solution of their problems in any area in which the counselor is competent to assist

Administrators, in their organization plans, should keep in mind that they will frequently be the best-trained and most experienced faculty members and will of necessity perform many personnel functions themselves. Although the mechanics of the program will tend to be simple, many routine duties will be attached to the office of the administrator. Provisions for adequate record forms, the testing program, coordination, and allocation of duties and case load are but a few of the functions of the superintendent. As the program develops and more teachers become interested and trained, some of these functions may be transferred from the administrator to counselors.

Organizing the Large School.—Since organization is for the purpose of affording the best possible service to individual pupils, attention must be given to the large school's need for a more complex personnel program. The greater variety of students' needs and complexity of problems require a great number of personnel methods and resources. Because of this fact the following steps are more numerous and complex than were those listed for small schools.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OR THE PRINCIPAL (with the consent of the school board)

1. Appoints the faculty.
2. Appoints the director or vice-principal in charge of the personnel work.

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THE FACULTY COMMITTEE ON PERSONNEL WORK

1. Acts as a liaison group with the faculty.
2. Aids in formulating objectives
3. Aids in preparing the in-service training program.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM

1. Builds favorable attitudes.
2. Acquaints teachers with personnel methods and techniques.

DIRECTOR OR VICE-PRINCIPAL IN CHARGE OF PERSONNEL WORK

1. Takes charge of details
2. Supervises counselors and teacher-counselors
3. Acts as technical adviser to the faculty committee on guidance
4. Serves as liaison officer to the School-community Committee on Personnel Work.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COMMITTEE ON PERSONNEL WORK (composed of agents and representatives of agencies available to counsel students and out-of-school youth)

Outlines the objectives and methods of the program of coordination.

COMMUNITY AGENCIES

Cooperate in making services available to the schools which could not be provided under educational budgets

INTERESTED FACULTY

Actively participate in certain phases of the program

Classroom teachers, special teachers, and homeroom teachers contribute to the case history.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITY ADVISERS

Observe behavior outside of formal school situations and make unique contributions to anecdotes and case notes in the pupil case history folder.

PROFESSIONALLY TRAINED COUNSELORS

Call upon all available resources in diagnosing and counseling individual students.

The personnel director in a large school will usually devote part-time to supervision and coordination and will be charged

with additional duties in the school. Since this office at first will carry responsibility for teaching, a counseling load, and active participation in the in-service training program, the director will be fully occupied. As the program develops, this work load must be decreased.

The necessity for securing community cooperation is emphasized since few schools will have properly trained, experienced workers to deal with some types of students' problems. Community referrals are necessary regardless of the size of school but the complex, large school needs these technical services more than do smaller institutions.

Much importance is attached to the in-service training program since future developments can come only as the counselors are prepared to use more adequate techniques. Many gaps in present programs may be closed through an intelligent and intensive in-service training program. Without provision for adequate in-service training there is likelihood that programs will crystallize at a low level of effectiveness.

SUMMARY

The school administrator must consider two factors in organizing his personnel program: present status and desirable objectives. He must consider the present in order to evaluate available resources; he must also determine what ultimate outcomes are desirable for his institution. Specifically he must consider:

1. Desirable objectives for his school's personnel program.
2. Potential faculty support, cooperation, and participation in the light of individual interests, aptitudes, and training
3. Possible techniques to be used in obtaining an adequate staff, developed to a large degree from available personnel
4. The types of problems with which the school should first attempt to counsel.
5. Financial limitations of the school in order that the school shall not be overreaching in attempts to aid students.

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6. Physical plant and equipment available for the personnel program.
7. Necessary delegation of administrative functions for the purpose of giving proper attention to the program.
8. Constant efforts to give increasingly better services to individual students.

Review and Discussion Questions

1. What advantages are to be found in an organized personnel program as contrasted with an unorganized program?
2. In organizing a personnel program in a small community with a school population of 300 and a faculty of ten teachers, what services should be first organized?
3. What methods may an administrator use to develop special types of personnel services in the smaller schools?
4. What community resources are available which could contribute to adjustments of students but which are not utilized in many schools?
5. List the reasons for developing a personnel program from its present status as opposed to attempting to superimpose a ready-made and extensive program.
6. Why do large schools more frequently resort to program organization through employment of personnel specialists?
7. Describe in detail a desirable in-service training program for a small school.

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CHAPTER XII

Assisting Out-of-school Youth

IN THE preceding chapters we have confined our discussions to personnel work with youth in the schools. This restriction was to be expected since that is the thesis of this text. To end our discussion at this point, however, would leave the reader with an incomplete understanding of student personnel work. Our concern with the problems of youth cannot terminate when they withdraw from school. We must extend our discussion beyond the preceding chapters for three reasons

First, personnel workers are, or must become, citizens of our communities, aggressively interested in problems of social progress and welfare. While we are concerned with abstract social philosophy, we must also be concerned with building socioeconomic conditions which will permit students to use the training we helped them acquire. Moreover, we must be concerned with remedying those conditions which cause students to feel that society has no place for them and which actively or passively distort personalities we have helped develop in the school.

Secondly, personnel workers have developed professional methods, techniques, and programs which may be adapted by community agencies in further assistance to youth after they leave school. While much that we do is as yet restricted to school problems and adjustments, we are, nevertheless, developing a laboratory for the perfection of more efficient means of aiding all youth. Indeed, school workers are the chief agents of society specializing in assisting youth. Therefore we should be able to contribute much knowledge and

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some techniques to a community program which deals with the adjustments of out-of-school youth.

Thirdly, one of the major responsibilities of school personnel workers is assisting youth to prepare for after-school adjustments. Nearly everything we do is geared to this objective of helping youth develop their potentialities for adult life. It follows that we must be actively interested in the successes and failures our students achieve after they leave school. By studying these results, we shall be better able to improve our services to new generations of youth while they are yet in school. Follow-up studies may teach us which techniques to abandon and which ones to perfect.

For these three reasons school personnel workers must become better informed about community programs for the assistance of out-of-school youth. The major responsibility for this assistance does not, of course, rest upon our shoulders as school workers. Our chief responsibility is to become more effective in our assistance to youth in school. But as enlightened citizens in a democracy, we must not isolate and insulate ourselves from the community. Because of these considerations we include this chapter in a text otherwise devoted exclusively to personnel work with students.

PROBLEMS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

In Chap. II we discussed at some length the problems of youth with special emphasis on the types of assistance provided by personnel workers in high schools. For the most part out-of-school youth experience similar difficulties. For this reason our present discussion will be brief, the reader is advised to reread Chap. II with out-of-school youth in mind.

In common with adults, youth face the serious problem of securing employment¹. Some students postpone the day

¹ BELL, HOWARD M., *Youth Tell Their Story*, American Council on Education, Washington, D C, 1938

HARLEY, D. L., *Youth: Finding Jobs*, U S Office of Education, Bulletin

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of reckoning by continuing in high school after the age of compulsory school attendance. A small number of these students graduate from high school, and still fewer enroll in college. But following these postponements, the problem of employment is still present. In former decades an expanding labor market absorbed a very large proportion of youth as they left school. But today the problem is extremely acute, and many students are confronted with the probability of enforced idleness.

Most unemployed youth want a job—any kind of a job—and believe that with employment they could solve and adjust their many other difficulties. To those who have worked with and studied the adjustments of both youth and adults, this appears to be an oversimplification of the problem. While receiving a regular pay check does solve many economic problems, yet it does not necessarily lead to the adjustment of all emotional, social, and personal problems. Moreover, a job should offer real possibilities for advancement and for the exercise of the worker's potentialities and interests. Without these conditions adjustment problems of other types may arise.

All of this leads one to the conclusion that youth not only need employment opportunities but also need to be assisted in discovering employment which offers possibilities for further development—vocational, personal, social, and civic. Youth need not only employment but also guidance in the selection of a job.¹ Vocational guidance and placement

1936, No. 18-V, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Urban Youth: Their Characteristics and Economic Problems, Works Progress Administration, Division of Research, Washington, D. C., 1939

¹ EDGERTON, A. H., "Guidance in Transition from School to Community Life," *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, 1937, Chap. VIII, Part I, Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

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counseling are, therefore, prominent in the list of the problems of out-of-school youth.

Youth also need counseling in the further development of constructive recreational and leisure-time habits and activities. In an exhaustive investigation of the leisure-time activities of students who withdrew from high school before graduation, Eckert and Marshall discovered a most disturbing condition.¹ Constructive activities were frequently discontinued upon leaving school. Apparently youth have insufficient resources to develop unaided their recreational habits. Relatively few instances were found of discriminating judgment and practice in music, radio programs, movies, and personal reading or study. Bell reports similar results from his extensive survey of youth in Maryland.² In Chap. II we referred to the significance of these facts for the personnel worker in schools. At this point we emphasize the fact that communities must make greater efforts to provide facilities and counseling for youth if they are to develop constructive social habits and to avoid antisocial activities. Leisure-time problems, like choosing an occupation and finding a job, cannot be left to chance if youth are to develop into socially useful adults.³

Youth face many other adjustments after leaving school, some of which are solved with the assistance of adult friends. In the case of other problems, parents provide the needed counsel. But even a most casual observer will note many instances in which self-help and parental assistance prove to be inadequate. In such cases someone in the community must provide the needed counsel and assistance if the potentialities of youth are to be conserved in a constructive

¹ ECKERT, RUTH E., and THOMAS O. MARSHALL, *When Youth Leave School*, Chap. V, The Regents' Inquiry, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

² BELL, *op cit.*, Chap. 5.

³ GLOVER, KATHERINE, *Leisure for Living*, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1936, 18-II, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

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manner. The more we study youth and their adjustments the more convinced we become of the need for an aggressive and enlightened program in each community which will supplement the efforts of parents and youth themselves. With our improved understanding we can no longer be persuaded that youth will inevitably and unaided acquire the constructive maturity necessary to the preservation of democracy.

What of the School?—In bygone days the school was expected to graduate students supposedly fully equipped to meet and master all problems in the outside world. We have discussed in Chap. I the methods and techniques used by the school to prepare students for adulthood. In that discussion we pointed out some of the deficiencies in the school's program and elaborated on certain correctives now being tried out, such as progressive education with its emphasis on direct attention to preparation for citizenship.

The exhaustive Regents' Inquiry in the state of New York yielded convincing data bearing upon the high school's effectiveness in preparing youth to meet and master the problems we mentioned above. The question studied was: To what extent have the schools prepared youth for social competence? We borrow from the findings of this study in order to orient the reader to the role of the school in the adjustment of youth. We shall see many indications in these findings that the school has been, to a large extent, negligent and ineffective in preparing youth for out-of-school life. At least one major conclusion is self-evident. Until the schools become more effective, community agencies face the responsibility of developing assistance programs for students poorly prepared in school for transition to community living. Bell arrived at a similar conclusion on the basis of his study.¹

We mention a few of the significant findings and conclusions of the study of out-of-school youth by Eckert and

¹ BELL, *op cit*

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Marshall.¹ Three out of five students do not complete high school in New York State, and specialized training for employment had been started by less than half of the students at the time of their withdrawal. Even in an expanding labor market these untrained youth would have serious difficulty in competing for jobs which require vocational training. Even among students who remained to graduate, there was a large proportion poorly prepared for job competition. Moreover, over half of the students reported that they had received no counseling assistance in selecting a course of studies and an occupation. A large proportion of all students, including those who graduated, were most unrealistic in their ambitions and hopes for the future at the time of leaving school, and were often ignorant of their own assets and liabilities. Those who withdrew before graduation were not only less well trained than the others but were most deficient in abilities and self-understanding as well as in knowledge of conditions and demands facing them in the outside world. Eckert summarizes as follows: "Those who will be least able to acquire socially useful habits, information, and points of view without formal instruction are those who today are released first from any type of school instruction."² And even graduated students "do not show much more enlightened social attitudes than do those who leave with less training."³ In this connection they state further: "The school judges their readiness for out-of-school living primarily by intellectual standards, rather than by their possession of desirable ethical traits or by their concern for the social good."⁴ In view of the predominance of the school's interest in things intellectual and academic, it is small wonder that a large proportion of youth is ill prepared to meet the

¹ ECKERT and MARSHALL, *op cit*

² *Ibid*, pp 180-181.

³ *Ibid*, p 182

⁴ *Ibid*, p. 183.

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many situations in community life which require more than an understanding of ancient history and plane geometry "The future of the individual boy or girl needs emphasis as well as the past achievement of his race."¹

The findings of the Regents' Inquiry are probably representative of conditions in many other states. It becomes apparent that many youth leave school at such an early age that but little has been done to prepare them for out-of-school life. The fact that many of those students who remain for graduation are also ill-prepared, suggests that merely compelling longer attendance in school will not inevitably prepare all of youth for community life. A radically new and supplementary type of education is needed for many young people.

It follows, then, that until high-school education becomes more effective, and probably after that time, new social agencies will be needed to do what the schools have left undone. This would seem to be an obvious conclusion if society is concerned with the preparation of youth for adulthood. Such is the need for a more constructive and effective community youth program. We turn now to a brief description of the important community agencies which, at the present time, provide programs for youth. For an extensive survey of a number of community programs the reader is referred to: *Youth: How Communities Can Help*, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1936, 18-I, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS AND PROGRAMS

A number of organizations assume responsibility for helping youth. We shall describe briefly the programs of a number of these organizations.

State Departments of Education.—In addition to control of standards in schools, state departments of education

¹ ECKERT and MARSHALL, *op cit*, p. 188.

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frequently are called upon to make follow-up studies and to act as consultant in studies of youth being made by other agencies. Much information has been made available by surveys such as that conducted by the New York State Board of Regents. Not only have state departments aided in fact finding, but they have played an active part through their guidance activities and rehabilitation for handicapped persons,¹ in and out of the schools. These departments also assume leadership in assisting schools to develop special courses of study for graduates who desire to return for postgraduate work before beginning college work or seeking employment

Federal-state Employment Offices.—Because unemployment is one of the most serious problems facing youth, the public employment offices should be used by all community agencies in meeting this problem. These employment offices are especially well equipped through staff and employer contacts to assist youth and to cooperate with social agencies.² In an increasing number of employment offices, special junior placement counselors give special attention to the employment problems of youth. In some cities these counselors have their offices in the schools and thus serve students at the time they leave school. Such cooperation adds to the effectiveness of the placement counseling.

Civilian Conservation Corps.—The C. C. C. camps provide special types of experiences, work and guidance for youth often not reached by other organizations. With limited personnel and finances the C. C. C. has been generally

¹ FOSTER, TERRY C, "Organization and Administration of a State Program of Vocational Rehabilitation," *Vocational Education Bulletin* 161, *Rehabilitation Series* 21, U S Office of Education, Government Printing Office, Washington, D C, 1935

² HOPKINS, JESS T, *The Emergence of a New Public Employment Service*, pp 36-39, Public Employment Center of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y, 1935

MAULE, FRANCIS, "Williamsport Defeats Unemployment through Occupational Adjustment," *Occupations*, November, 1938, 17 106-113

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acclaimed for the quality of its work in regard to morale, education, teaching of skills, and raising of health and recreational standards. The C.C.C. is particularly to be commended for its work with boys and young men for whom there are few community resources to aid in the many necessary phases of adjustment. A statement of accomplishment claims:

Four years of experience in CCC education have revealed its many possibilities. As an agency for conservation of material resources, the CCC has dramatized for the country the urgency of the conservation problem. As an agency for youth conservation, it has made the country more conscious of the need for a comprehensive and flexible educational program in order to provide for the varied interests and needs of the young men found in CCC camps.¹

The guidance activities of the C.C.C. camps include the following:²

1. An individual interview of each new enrollee by camp advisers and others
2. Group counseling of new men by advisers, military and technical officials, and others
3. Orientation course to camp life for new men
4. Cumulative record card for each enrollee
5. Tryout experiences on work projects and jobs within the camp
6. Vocational classes.
7. Classes on occupational information
8. Periodical interviews of all enrollees by the camp adviser or by other members of the company personnel to check on the enrollee's progress and to offer him further guidance.
9. Assistance for the enrollee in locating employment.
10. Follow-up of former C.C.C. members.

National Youth Administration.—Efforts of the National Youth Administration are concentrated upon two

¹ OXLEY, HOWARD W, "CCC Camp Education: Guidance and Recreational Phases," *Bulletin* 19, 1937, p. 2, U S Office of Education, Government Printing Office, Washington, D C, 1938

² *Ibid*, p 9-10.

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groups of young people: (1) those in school who receive aid in return for work in the educational institution; and (2) youth not in school, unemployed, and with limited financial resources. The major objectives of the National Youth Administration are two, the second of which has to do with out-of-school youth:

1. To provide funds for the part-time employment of needy school, college, and graduate students sixteen to twenty-four years of age so as to enable them to continue their education, and

2. To provide funds for the part-time employment of youth from relief families on work projects designed not only to give the young people valuable work experience, but also to benefit the communities in which they live¹

The N.Y.A. is an organization particularly well-fitted to cooperate in community plans for youth personnel work. With federal funds it is able to carry on projects which would be financially impossible for local government. Its program of projects and guidance activities is limited only by the ingenuity of local leaders in developing programs of assistance to out-of-school and unemployed youth.

4-H Clubs.—Most community agencies are not active in rural areas. Perhaps the most aggressive youth organization in nonurban districts is the 4-H Club. The movement includes youth from ten to twenty-one with a membership of over 1,000,000 boys and girls. The United States Department of Agriculture has acted as a sponsoring agency, but leadership is drawn from local communities. The objectives of the 4-H Clubs are social in the broad sense of the word.

To help rural boys and girls develop desirable ideals and standards for farming, homemaking, community life, and citizenship, and a sense of responsibility for their attainment, to afford them technical instruc-

¹ JOHNSON, PALMER O, and OSWALD L HARVEY, *The National Youth Administration*, p 7. Prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D C, 1938.

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tion in farming and homemaking and an understanding of agriculture as a basic industry and of homemaking as a worthy occupation; to instill in their minds an appreciation of nature and of the environment in which they live; to teach them the value of research and the scientific attitude, to train them in cooperative action, in healthful living, in the intelligent use of leisure, and in the continuous pursuit of learning, to help them to demonstrate methods of improving agriculture and homemaking, increasing farm incomes, raising standards of living, and enhancing the satisfactions of farm life.¹

Rural communities will need the help of the 4-H Clubs which contribute to vocational, health, citizenship, and recreational adjustments of youth not reached by other agencies.

Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A.—These organizations are usually most active in urban centers. A large number of school pupils are active in the Hi-Y Clubs of the Y.M.C.A. and the Girl Reserve Units of the Y.W.C.A. These groups are often sponsored or advised by a teacher in the high school. Both organizations make contributions to adjustment in the fields of recreational, ethical, educational, and health problems.

Scouts.—Scouting is so universal and so familiar that we need only mention it here. Teachers often act as leaders of Boy and Girl Scouts and the movement cooperates with all civic and community bodies in social, moral, and physical guidance and in citizenship training of boys and girls both in and out of school.

Religious Organizations.—The majority of communities, regardless of size, contain organizations devoted to religious and ethical problems of youth. Church clubs, DeMolay, Knights of Columbus, The Masonic Order, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Epworth League, and others assist through active programs of social activities, informal educational activities, and club activities.

¹ CHAMBERS, M. M., *Youth Serving Organizations, National Non-governmental Associations, A Preliminary Report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education*, pp. 126-127, The American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1937.

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Business Service Organizations.—Service clubs such as Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, and other groups sponsor active vocational guidance programs for young people. These programs include interviews on problems of choosing an occupation, assistance to the school in building a library of occupational information, and similar activities.

Social Agencies.—Organizations which one might classify under this head are so numerous and operate in so many ways that only a general statement can be made in regard to them. In larger centers these organizations are found locally supported by private or public funds and in some instances by both. In addition to providing professional assistance to families in financial need, these agencies sponsor special programs for youth. Of special importance are summer camps which provide experience in cooperative living, healthful conditions, and wholesome recreation. Some agencies are equipped to work with juvenile delinquents and to assist in desirable rehabilitation.

Law Enforcement Agencies.—Juvenile delinquency is a problem which constantly complicates all efforts to aid youth in making adjustments. Juvenile courts, police departments, and state and county agencies for law enforcement have made efforts to convince youth that the police officer is a friend, not an enemy. In some large cities a Big Brother organization has been sponsored by police departments. The cooperation of these organizations with other community departments is necessary to an effective program of assistance to youth.

The Community Library.—To an increasing extent librarians are actively assisting youth to become better informed about occupations and to develop better judgment in reading for pleasure. These two functions can be made to contribute much to the orientation and guidance of youth.

The School's Facilities.—To one interested in problems of out-of-school youth, there is cause for regret in the limita-

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tions placed upon the use of the school plant. When youth leave school, their connections are abruptly broken and few make or are permitted to make further use of the school's resources. Most communities have been shortsighted in failing to see what might be done if the schools were used for the benefit of all youth. In many communities the school is the only building equipped with a gymnasium, auditorium, moving-picture projectors, an adequate library, and usable quarters for group meetings in desirable surroundings. All too frequently school buildings are closed at five o'clock, and teachers and students have departed. Custodians are completing their work and when this is done, the doors are locked until the next morning. The reasons for this practice are several: teachers cannot be expected to assume responsibility for evening programs in addition to the day activities; community agencies have not assumed responsibility for extra-school programs, and money is not available from the school's present budget for community activities.

Whatever the explanations, the results are undesirable. If the school is closed to out-of-school youth, they can turn only to the pool hall or public dance hall except for those rare occasions when community activity allows them a different form of recreation. From a social point of view this policy is wasteful of the community's resources. Most schools possess well-equipped woodworking and machine shops and stage equipment for a local little theater movement. School libraries contain much material needed by youth but which is used only in school by pupils. Gymnasiums stand idle in the dark while boys and girls create new problems outside. Few school officers are unaware of these conditions, but they often cannot act until the community awakens to the need for fuller use of existing facilities.

No stigma is attached to the community educational plant. A boy or girl may hesitate to walk into an agency downtown since the act of entering may place a label upon

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the action. No such attitude is directed toward the school. It is respected, and people are accustomed to expecting the best from it. In developing a community program for out-of-school youth, therefore, the school's equipment should be considered as available if and when the public decides that such use is in the best interest of youth.

In addition to equipment and other facilities, the school may contribute other resources to a community program. In a large number of communities the only trained workers with youth are those employed by the schools. It would be unreasonable to expect these persons to work double shifts, but often it is necessary to seek their aid in developing a program. Adult workers in 4-H Clubs can be trained in the keeping of records, counseling, and supervision of activities. Much of this training can be provided by counselors without requiring that they become part of the program insofar as direct participation is concerned. Workers in physical education may be employed for eleven months each year in order that playgrounds in small communities may be available to youth.

Teachers of dramatics can be called upon as consultants without asking them to direct plays, write script, or act as policeman to safeguard school stage properties. Shop teachers can plan with a responsible person in the community for the use of machinery and tools. Pianos, bass drums, cymbals, and other musical instruments belonging to school music organizations can be used by other youth without too much wear and tear. Film projectors, in capable hands, can be used in postgraduate instruction of out-of-school youth.

DEVELOPING COMMUNITY PROGRAMS

Having considered the community agencies which should be included in the program and the part which the school should play, we now turn to problems involved in the

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development of a program. One of the most pressing problems concerns the coordination of the work of many organizations. Increasingly we are seeing the need for united efforts in developing a program which shall be adequate to assist out-of-school youth with their many problems. For a description of the methods used by several cities to coordinate their resources, the reader is referred to *How Communities Can Help*, The Committee on Youth Problems, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1936, 18-I, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. and to: "Youth Serving Agencies Cooperate," by John A. Lang, *Occupations*, December, 1938, 17:216-219.

Representation of all community groups must be included in a well-coordinated project. These groups should be represented on an advisory committee charged with responsibility for making policies and approving general plans as well as for enlisting the aid of individuals and groups in the community. In addition, the advisory committee serves the function of educating the entire community with respect to problems of youth. Public relations and broad planning will concern this committee as well as raising necessary funds. Another most important function of this committee concerns a survey of the community's resources. For example, if analysis revealed that no agency provided vocational guidance for youth, then this committee should work with existing organizations to develop a program of guidance or help or organize a new agency. In large cities it may be necessary, in addition to the advisory committee, to set up sectional advisory committees to care for the problems peculiar to smaller sections or neighborhoods of the city. The smaller committees would serve the "east side" and the "west side" in the same manner that the central committee serves the entire city.

The advisory committee on youth problems should include representatives from the following organizations:

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All Service Clubs.
Church Organizations.
4-H Clubs
Y.M.C.A.
Y.W.C.A.
Juvenile Court.
Big Brother and Big Sister Associations
City Library
Public School
Parent-Teacher Associations
Boy Scouts.
Campfire Girls and Girl Scouts
Social Welfare Society
Public Relief Department
State Department of Education
Public Employment Service

In meeting the needs of youth, a small staff must operate under the auspices of the advisory committee. This smaller group would be charged with practical problems of administration. Supervision of individual workers, planning of specific projects, purchase and care of supplies and equipment—these services must be provided by a small executive committee or staff. Volunteer and paid workers must be employed, and such employment should be in the hands of the staff.

SUMMARY

Much has been said and written about the problems of out-of-school youth. Recent studies cited above give us a much clearer understanding of the needs of these individuals. In addition to reviewing this information, we described briefly some of the community organizations which sponsor programs for youth. We gave special attention to the responsibilities and resources of the school and discussed the part played by the school in causing some of these problems. In addition we discussed the part the school might play in assisting these out-of-school youth.

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For a number of reasons, we believe the school's facilities should be made available for a community program. In addition to the school, other community agencies should be given responsibilities in developing a program. The programs of these agencies should be coordinated by means of a committee or council of representatives of all agencies providing assistance to out-of-school youth.

Review and Discussion Questions

- 1 What responsibilities would you include in a list of possible services the schools should perform for out-of-school youth?
- 2 What organizations should be included if a program were set up in your community to meet the problems of youth?
- 3 To what extent should personnel workers assist in a school-community for out-of-school youth?
- 4 Outline a parent-teacher-school program which would utilize school resources for out-of-school youth
5. What are the legitimate functions of service organizations (e.g. Rotary) in dealing with youth problems?
- 6 To what extent have the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration contributed to the solution of problems of out-of-school youth?
- 7 What aid is the state department of education prepared to give in meeting problems of youth?

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